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ABSTRACT

This volume contains conference papers in which representatives from case method-oriented organizations present ideas on interactive, interdisciplinary, intercultural, and international teaching and learning. Eight chapters include: (1) "Case Method Research and Evaluation" (e.g., cross-cultural case research and writing and teaching research by distance education and computer technology); (2) "Adult Learning across Disciplines around the World" (e.g., modeling team learning and preparing teachers for urban settings); (3) "Case Teaching across Disciplines around the World" (e.g., case writing and role playing exercises for teaching legal processes); (4) "Educational Leadership and Case Method Application" (e.g., role plays to teach marketing cases and grading case courses to foster collaborative learning); (5) "Interactive Simulations and Distance Education" (e.g., interactive multimedia simulations in management and computer simulation in symbolic logic classrooms); (6) "The Case Method and the Internet" (e.g., tools to train student teachers for diversity and teaching human rights online); (7) "Case Studies and Writing in Various International Settings" (e.g., collaboration in researching, writing, and publishing cases and a case writers' workshop); and (8) "Applications in the Disciplines" (e.g., meeting marketing challenges of nations in transition and a case approach to improve educational mission impact). (SM)

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INTERACTIVE TEACHING AND THE MULTI MEDIA REVOLUTION

Case Method & Other Techniques

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Edited by Hans E. Klein

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INTERACTIVE TEACHING AND THE MULTI MEDIA REVOLUTION

Case Method & Other Techniques

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PREFACE

This volume continues the annual presentation of 'Selected Papers' resulting from international, interdisciplinary WACRA® conferences devoted to the consideration of the case method, simulations, games, videos, distance education and other interactive methods as research, teaching, training and learning techniques. Included also is a selection of international cases.

During the last 30 years the case method has enjoyed a steady and continuing increase in popularity and use. For example, applications in the field of education have increased in the past several years and continue to increase dramatically. The International Association for Management Education (AACSB), the American Accounting Association and many leaders in university-level business education encourage the use of the case method and other interactive techniques to more effectively reach students, especially undergraduate accounting students who, in recent years, have turned to more "exciting" fields of study.

In its Preamble to Business Accreditation Standards (http://www.aacsb.edu), the AACSB states:

> *The complex demands on management and accounting education mirror the demands on organizations and managers. Challenges come from:*
>
> - *strong and growing global economic forces,*
> - *conflicting values,*
> - *changing technology in products and processes, and*
> - *demographic diversity among employees and customers.*
>
> *In this environment, management education must prepare students to contribute to their organizations and the larger society and to grow personally and professionally throughout their careers. The objective of management education accreditation is to assist programs in meeting these challenges.*
>
> *Accreditation focuses on the quality of educational activities. Standards set demanding but realistic thresholds, challenge schools to pursue continuous improvement, and provide guidance for improvement in educational programs.*
>
> *AACSB member schools* reflect a diverse range of missions. That diversity is a positive characteristic to be fostered, not a disadvantage to be reduced or minimized. Therefore, one of accreditation's guiding principles is the tolerance, and even encouragement, of diverse paths to achieving high quality in management education. Thus, the accreditation process endorses and supports diversity in management education.*
>
> *Acknowledging the diversity within AACSB, all member schools share a common purpose -- the preparation of students to enter useful professional and societal lives. Interaction among students and faculty accomplishes this purpose most directly. Accordingly, the accreditation review focuses on a school's clear determination of its mission, development of its faculty, planning of its curricula, and delivery of its instruction. In these activities, each school must achieve and demonstrate an acceptable level of performance consistent with its overall mission while satisfying AACSB standards. Substantial opportunity remains for schools to differentiate themselves through a variety of activities.*
>
> *Just as managers face rising expectations for their performance and the performance of their organizations, programs in management education also should anticipate rising expectations, even within a given mission. No fixed curriculum, specific set of faculty credentials, single type of faculty performance, or approach to instruction will suffice over*

time. Accordingly, programs in management education, and the accreditation process, must focus not only on the present, but also on the preparation for the future. The processes used to strengthen curriculum, develop faculty, improve instruction, and enhance intellectual activity determine the direction and rate of improvement. Thus, these processes play an important role in accreditation, along with the necessary review of inputs and assessment of out-comes. As part of each school's effort to prepare its students for future careers, the school should provide a total educational experience that emphasizes conceptual reasoning, problem-solving skills, and preparation for life-long learning.

WACRA® conferences are designed to assist faculty and administrators in reaching these goals. Delegates from around the world, including representatives from affiliated case method oriented organizations routinely present their ideas and proposals on interactive, interdisciplinary, intercultural and international teaching and learning.

Presentations and discussions of scholarly work are primary means of communicating knowledge. Today, the environment and the opportunities are increasingly international in scope. Scholarship and research, to continue to fulfill their role in society, have to adapt to this new environment. To facilitate research and promote cooperation internationally and across disciplines, WACRA® - The World Association for Case Method Research & Application and ACT - The Academy for Creative Teaching, conduct international conferences and publish this series of 'Selected Papers' with the purpose of:

- creating an International Forum for the discussion of contemplated, on-going or completed case method research,
- facilitating the exchange of experiences with existing case method applications and
- providing encouragement and an interdisciplinary, international structure for the discussion, development and dissemination of new avenues and approaches to teaching and training.

Months before the infamous "Wall" came down in 1989, WACRA® became actively involved in building bridges to academia in Central and Eastern Europe. This process has enabled colleagues from a variety of Central and Eastern European countries to participate in WACRA® conferences, to present their work to an international audience and to engage in academic discourse and exchange of ideas on a truly international scale.

These contacts contributed to the creation of Case Method Organizations in The Czech Republic and Lithuania: CZACRA - The Czech Association for Case Method Research & Application in Brno, Czech Republic and BACRA - The Baltic Association for Case Method Research & Application in Panevezys, Lithuania. Since then, the initial contacts have evolved into full partnerships between WACRA® and Central and Eastern European institutions and also among WACRA® members from all over the world. Members have collaborated in many projects and are cooperating on case writing, case teaching and training, management consulting, and curricula planning, to name just a few projects.

Delegates from 27 countries attended the conference in Marseille, France. Host of WACRA'98 was Groupe ESC Marseille-Provence (Business School), Marseille, France. All papers and contributions presented at the conference were selected through a double blind peer review and out of this pool the papers in this volume were selected for publication. The contributions are arranged in the following broad areas: Case Method Research and Evaluation (1), Adult Learning Across Disciplines Around the World (2), Case Teaching Across Disciplines Around the World (3), Educational Leadership and Case Method Application (4), Interactive Simulations and Distance Education (5), The Case Method and The Internet (6), Case Studies and Writing in Various International Settings (7), and Applications in the Disciplines (8).

While editing the papers included in this volume, I have tried to maintain the character and thrust intended by the authors, despite the need to make, in some instances, alterations and amendments, in other cases, assisting the author in rewriting the paper. I have retained, to allow for flavor, alternate accepted (British) spelling, and have permitted slightly 'unorthodox' sentence structures to prevail, as long as the meaning was not distorted. In all, I have tried to maintain the author's opinions, views, suggestions and thoughts.

Hans E. Klein, Editor

CHAPTER ONE

A TECHNIQUE FOR CROSS-CULTURAL CASE RESEARCH AND WRITING

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Abstract

Case writers who attempt to write cases about situations that have occurred in another country or culture may find that their cases are not seen as authentic in the other culture. This paper presents a five-step technique for researching and writing case studies that overcomes the problems of cross-cultural case writing. An example of a case developed using this technique is presented both in its beginning and ending stage of development.

THE PROBLEM OF CROSS-CULTURAL CASE WRITING

Field research and writing of case studies in cultures or countries other than one's own can present problems especially when the case is to be used for instruction in the other country. Anyone who has tried to write such a case knows just how difficult it is to accurately portray the case situation within the context of another culture. Somehow the case never rings completely true for members of the other culture. Words or phrases might have slightly different meanings even when the language of instruction is English. Behaviors of characters depicted in the case can be interpreted differently when culturally based value systems are used by students. The cultural lense of the case author can easily filter out details of cultural importance or, conversely, include culturally irrelevant details. Any of these occurrences, of course, render such cases less useful as instructional tools in either culture. Maluszynski [1996] provided an enlightening statement of how these problems work in his critique of American-written cases about Polish business conditions. He concluded that, "...writing great representative cases for countries in transition is a very difficult and ambitious task..." and warned outside case writers to collaborate with case authors inside the country [p. 127]. Some of these same problems were again seen from another perspective in Erbes, *et al.* [1995] who discussed the strengths and weaknesses of using externally developed cases in the Czech Republic, and Carney [1995] whose experience with cases in the foreign language classroom provides a further perspective. One attempt to overcome these problems of cross-cultural case writing is the subject of this paper.

A CROSS-CULTURAL CASE WRITING TECHNIQUE

BACKGROUND

As part of a project to produce instructional materials for training Black school principals in South Africa, I was asked to prepare case studies centered on the real-life experiences of South African school principals. These case studies, to be of most use, had to be based on field research and introduce the types of problems and issues that South African principals actually encountered in the course of their work; the kinds of situations and people with whom the principals could truly relate. The cases were to complement the principles, themes and concepts contained in the training materials that had been prepared in the United States and ensure that those materials fit closely the context of South Africa. Case studies, it was thought, would render the training materials more acceptable to the principals who used them and more effective in helping them improve upon their professional expertise. Furthermore, the use of case method in training sessions could enhance principals' abilities to critically analyze situations, design strategies and formulate deliberate actions plans; abilities essential to effective professional practice [Welsh, Wyatt, & Atkinson, 1995].

The first three cases were developed through in-depth interviews with practicing principals. The principals were asked to relate their experiences with a decision they had faced in carrying out their duties. The story surrounding each decision was then pieced together through questioning by the interviewer. The interviews were tape recorded and transcribed. From this interview data, cases were written and the drafts reviewed and revised by the principal whose story was being told. The revised drafts were then field-tested in training sessions. After the field tests, instructor manuals were prepared.

This process proved to be too time-consuming and cumbersome. The cultural lenses of the case writer, an American white male, made necessary substantial revisions of cultural details before the cases accurately reflected the real context of South Africa. Not wanting to commit the error mentioned by Human [1990] of transposing "American corporate sophistication into an African context,' [p.116], another more efficient way of researching and writing the case studies had to be found.

Pigors and Pigors [1980] provided a starting point. The "Pigors Incident Process" of case study, or PIP as it is known, is a form of case analysis designed to stimulate cooperative thinking among members of small groups. It begins with an "incident", a written description of a real life situation about a half page in length. The group is asked to find and summarize the facts of the incident as a way of beginning to understand the larger case "report" of which the incident is but a small part. The idea of beginning with an incident and through systematic questioning by a group arriving at an understanding of a larger case seemed a promising way to develop cases in a cross-cultural setting. This, of course, was not what Pigors had in mind with his PIP method of case analysis. But, PIP did provide the seed that developed into the method described below.

FIVE-STEP METHOD FOR CASE RESEARCH AND WRITING

Work sessions were organized for the summer of 1995 in four South African cities; Johannesburg, Durban, Port Elizabeth and Cape Town. In each city six to eight participants were selected and each asked to write a case study or story about something that happened in their own school. The first draft of the case studies were to be written ahead of time and brought to the work session. These drafts would be revised and rewritten during the work session so that, by the end of the session, they would be ready for use in school management training programs.

The work sessions were intense, concentrated efforts over a four-day period where cases were written, rewritten, revised and discussed among the small group of colleague participants. The sessions were scheduled for six hours each day and held in meeting spaces provided by Teacher Opportunity Programmes (TOPS), a non-governmental organization dedicated to improving education in the Black community (TOPS also provided funding for this project). It was hoped that six to eight cases could be produced in each location, including field tests and instructor notes.

The process developed to carry out this project consisted of the following five steps:

Step One

Participants in the case writing work session were asked in advance to prepare a written account of a problem or decision that they actually faced in the course of managing their school. These accounts were usually one or two handwritten pages in length. Copies of an account were distributed to and read by each workgroup member just prior to a discussion of the account in the work session.

Step Two

The writer of an account was asked to tell the workgroup the story behind his or her account. Members would heard the account related in the author's own words and had the opportunity to ask clarifying questions. The discussion was tape recorded to collect the additional data that emerged in the course of the discussion. This might include quotes, descriptions of physical locations, persons, and organizational communication patterns; anything provided the cultural details surrounding the incident. Note was also taken of the analytical data that resulted from the group interaction.

Step Three

Immediately after the work session, a working draft of the case study was prepared on a laptop computer adding the introductory "hook", title, and presenting problem. Details, quotes, and descriptions that were gathered in the work session were also woven into the draft at this point.

Step Four

The working draft was distributed to the workgroup to be read and, again, discussed. This time, the discussion was focused on how the case study would be used by workgroup members when they conducted field-based training sessions with their fellow principals or staff. From this discussion, the issues imbedded in the case as well as questions used to initiate discussion were noted. This information was then used to prepare the instructor notes to accompany the completed case study.

Step Five

Inaccuracies, errors of fact, or additional details that emerged from the discussion were used to prepare the final draft. A copy of the final version of the case was immediately provided to each workgroup participant for their use in field-based training sessions prior to publication of the case series.

AN EXAMPLE OF THE TECHNIQUE

The following is an actual example of the five-step technique at work. In the first step participants prepared a written description of a problem or decision that was encountered as they went about their professional duties. In this example, Florence Macuba, Head of Department at Ilinge Senior Primary School in Kwa-Nobuhle, South Africa, provided a one-page hand-written description of a situation of which she was aware (Exhibit 1). In this instance, a group of seven Black school managers had gathered in Johannesburg to participate in a case-writing exercise. Ms. Macuba's description, with names disguised, was copied and distributed to each participant to read and discuss.

In the second step, participants discussed the situation asking Ms. Macuba questions about the school, its history, its teachers and other detailed information that would help them understand more fully the issues involved in the case and what might be done to resolve them. The discussion lasted for about two hours and was tape recorded in order to capture the additional data that emerged naturally in the course of the discussion. This data would be used later to write a more detailed second draft of the case study. Interestingly, the discussion itself seemed to be a powerful professional development experience for the participants as they worked together to help define the issues and come up with ideas to help resolve them. It was as if Ms. Macuba had a team of expert consultants working with her on this problem.

Immediately after the discussion, with notes and tape recording in hand, a draft of the case study was prepared using a laptop computer. In this third step the case study was expanded to include the additional details that had emerged in the discussion as well as the "hook" to introduce the case and a clear statement of the "presenting problem" as a conclusion to the case. This work was completed during the evening hours in preparation for a discussion of the draft with the same group the next morning. This discussion constituted the fourth step in the process and gave Ms. Macuba a chance to correct errors of fact in the draft as well as revise spellings or phrases so that they better matched local usage. The next day's discussion focused on how the case could be used in the training of school managers. Again, the discussion was recorded and the information used to further revise the draft and to prepare instructor notes.

EXHIBIT 1

Case Study
Principal: Lipho Lakhe
Age: 48
Teaching Experience: 26 years

Lipho Lakhe is the principal of Mfundo Senior Primary School. Before he becomes a school principal he was a teacher at this school for more than 15 years. Initially the school held an excellent academic record of achievement and had been recognized as one of the best in the area.

Owing to this factor the school has produced Heads of Department and principals whose services are held in high esteem in their respective schools. However, most teachers who were responsible for the progress in the school appear to be demotivated at present.

Staff members tend to defy the principal's instructions, absenteeism of teachers is excessive. This led to a decline in enrollment figures since the community is against such visible traits of disobedience.

In 1993, after several discussions with relevant structures concerning the image of the school, it was agreed upon that the school should move to another township in an effort to boost the school image which is until now shows no sign of improvement.

The fifth, and final, step in the process was preparing the final version of the case study. This version was distributed to the participants for their immediate use in staff training programs. Exhibit 2 is the final version of the case.

EXHIBIT 2

STAFF CHOICE FOR PRINCIPAL

This case was prepared in cooperation with Florence Macuba, Head of Department at Ilinge Senior Primary School, Kwa-Nobuhle, South Africa for use in the Teacher Opportunity Programmes Educational Management Program: The Effective Principal. All names and some peripheral facts have been disguised.

The staff's choice for principal at Mfundo Senior Primary School had been Lipho Lakhe. He was proud to have been appointed to the post and was determined to lead Mfundo School back to its former excellence. But, his vision was clouded with doubt.

Mfundo Senior Primary School was once recognized as the top school in the region. It led all of the area's township schools in academic results and was known for its performances in sport and music. As a matter of fact, its choir had once gone all the way to the finals of a national competition in music. Those were days of great pride at the school and Mr. Lakhe wanted to see those days return.

The school reached its peak under the capable leadership of its former principal, Xoli Maziko. Mr. Maziko had been a good scholar and also excelled in sport and music. He was a well-rounded man whose values were reflected in the performance of his school. He always credited the school's success to the dedication of the teachers. They were a highly motivated lot who arranged morning and afternoon classed and worked hard to assure that all pupils would do no less than their very best. The teachers worked hard and the pupils were inspired to do the same.

Mr. Maziko encouraged his teachers to continue their studies. And many of them did so. Some went on to become heads of department and principals in other schools where they served with distinction.

But, looking back, some now say that he may have encouraged his teachers too much. It was true that when the teachers had exams to take, Mr. Maziko would excuse them from their teaching duties for a day or two to study and prepare. Some teachers took advantage of this and make excuses to ve away from school for additional days. It was not long before the teachers left behind began to grumble when they had to take over for absent teachers. Soon, they too absented themselves and the pattern of decline began to develop.

During the best years, somewhat more than 1,000 pupils attended Mfundo Senior Primary School. But, slowly that number began to go down. In 1982, the inspector moved the school to another location with less space. This was a blow to Mr. Maziko from which he never seemed to recover. He began drinking and was not regular in attending to his duties at school. The teachers noticed of course, and they too became more lax; tending less to their duties. His health began to slip and, by the end of the decade, he could not even be depended upon to show up to parents' meetings that he had scheduled.

The enrollment dropped to around 400 pupils and many of the teachers were sent to other schools where they were needed. Then, in 1991, Mr. Maziko, who was in his early 60s, suddenly died of a massive heart attack.

Lipho Lakhe was a well-respected science teacher and had been at the Mfundo School for 15 years. He was 43 years old and had nearly 22 years of teaching experience. He had a talent for organizing and that talent was called for more often in recent years to help keep things from completely falling apart. The two heads of department were in their early sixties and were more than happy to share the administrative burdens of running the school with an energetic young man like Lipho.

After Mr. Maziko died, the teachers remembered what the school had once been and decided that its image and reputation should be restored. They thought that Lipho Lakhe was the kind of man who could do it. So, Mr. Lakhe became their choice for principal. It was an unusual selection, because he had never been an HOD or deputy principal, but he had been heavily involved in many of the tasks of running the school in recent years and the teachers were confident that he was the right person to lead the school. They gained the endorsement of the chairman of the governing council who was quite influential and aggressively protected the school from external pressures. Together, they convinced the inspector that Mr. Lakhe was the best man for the post. He had the energy and commitment to lead the school back to its former glory.

Enrollment at the school began to increase and Mr. Lakhe took steps to halt the absenteeism among teachers that had become so troublesome. Although he had been known to be truant himself on occasion through the years, he was convinced that teacher discipline was an important first step to gaining pupil and community respect.

He decided to enforce all the rules about teacher absences; to go "by the book" and have teachers fill out all the forms to be taken to the inspector's office. But, some of the school's long-time teachers resisted, reminding him of what he used to do when he was a teacher.

Still, they wanted to improve the school's image. As the enrollment improved, teachers who had be sent away now came back. They had ideas from other schools on how to improve Mfundo; what kind of school it should be and how it should be run. Each wanted to see their ideas put into practice and found fault with the principal's ideas.

Mr. Lakhe's hopes were being replaced with doubts as he wondered how he would restore Mfundo Senior Primary School to excellence. Could the teachers who resisted be convinced to change?

This case turned out to be rather short, but its length was appropriate for use in introducing people to the case method of instruction while its content was rich and complex enough to sustain a substantive discussion of a principal's role in school reform. The issues of principal-teacher relations emerged in a number of the cases that were developed during this project. For South Africa, such issues make sense. After forty years of apartheid, the education system was seen to be desperately in need of reform. Some of that reform involved the integration of the several education departments that were formed under the apartheid system and the integration of teachers and pupils in individual schools. Cases, such as that in Exhibit 2, help describe the problems being faced and the tasks being done in South African schools.

RESULTS OF THE TECHNIQUE

Cooperation and support from TOPS along with the collaboration of 25 black school principals, deputy principals, and heads of department from throughout South Africa resulted in 27 case studies being researched, written and field-tested in a 30-day time period. The cases were real in the sense that they related true stories told by Black principals about real problems actually encountered in the course of their professional work. The characters came from real life as did the issues they encountered. They are people and problems with whom most South African school principals can relate.

In researching and writing these case studies, it appeared that the process of involving practicing school managers in the development of the cases led participants to exercise their abilities to critically analyze real South African situations and to formulate deliberate action plans and strategies; abilities that are essential elements of the professional expertise necessary to the successful reform of education.

CONCLUSIONS

The project supported by TOPS involved writing a series of case studies centered on the experiences of Black school principal, deputy principals, and heads of department from throughout South Africa. The problem was to provide a South African context for theory and research on school management developed in other countries. Case studies were seen as the tool, when used with theory and available research on school management, that would help school manager identify and analyze problems and to evaluate possible solutions. To work, however, the case studies had to be culturally accurate. The problem of writing cases across cultures was solved through a five-step technique that started with a problem actually experienced by a participant and, through structured discussion with peers, successfully resulted in a case study that fit the South African context.

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THE USE OF CASE-BASED RESEARCH:
A TYPOLOGY-BASED EXAMPLE

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Abstract

Case research has had a long and varied history in scholarly studies. This paper describes the methods by which case research has been used in different fields of research. It then goes on to describe the use of case research by the New Hampshire Industries Group (NHIG) at the Whittemore School of Business and Economics at the University of New Hampshire. This research has developed and tested a supplier typology that helps to explain the success of competitively advanced industries in New Hampshire. Since the New Hampshire economy can be seen to be a microcosm of the US economy, this typology helps to explain the competitive advantage of advanced industries.

INTRODUCTION

Case studies have been used in business based research for quite some time. Early business research frequently was based on studies of the leadership styles of individual managers, organizational units, or separate companies. As business fields strived for respectability as qualified areas of research in their own right, as opposed to off shoots of more traditional areas, such as economics, sociology, and psychology, researchers placed increasing emphasis on more traditional forms of research and analysis. This led to a deemphasis of the use of case studies in research in business decision making. While some researchers did continue to use case studies in their research, most researchers turned to studies using large n studies and parametric statistics. Indeed, case research and non parametric statistics were rarely even taught in doctoral programs in business schools. Moreover, the resulting research started to look at more specific aspects of decision making and organizational processes. Whereas earlier, case based research focused on large scale aspects of decision making and organizational processes, latter, large n studies focused on increasingly narrower aspects of these areas of study. This has led to the loss of a valuable tool in research design and analysis.

Case based research has continued to be a major part of the methodology in many fields, however. It has been used to both set and test hypotheses and concepts in many areas of study. Clearly, given the acceptance of this form of research, business researchers are missing out on a major opportunity to further extend their studies if they are willing to use case studies in their research.

Business researchers can follow the lead of those in other fields by returning to the use of cases to enhance their studies. Even the AACSB, the major accrediting agency for schools of business and management agree that case research and writing is an appropriate form of professional development as long as certain guidelines are followed.

The New Hampshire Industries Group at the University of New Hampshire has made use of case studies a key part of their research methodology. The NHIG has followed these recent trends in extending teaching based case studies into their research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

CASE RESEARCH

Case research has a long and cherished history as a research methodology. As a formal research methodology, case studies have been used in some fields since the 1800's. Feagin et al [1991] note that psychoanalysis was developed through the use of individual case analysis. The beginning of research in psychology was based on single case studies. Basically, Freud, Jung and others reported on their analysis of a series of individuals. Based on their analysis of these individuals, they developed theories of human behavior. They then looked at similar cases to further prove their theories. Kazdin [1982] also notes that behaviorists including Wundt, Pavlov, and Thorndike helped to develop and further the use of case based analysis. Skinner's work on operant conditioning, as an example, was based on a rigorous examination of individual subjects, essentially, the stringing together of a series of individual case studies. These researchers demonstrated that case research could be used for both the development as well as the testing of theories.

These researchers all understood that they were able to use case research to study behavior without having to rely on self reported data. This is typically the situation with survey research data. Individuals may not remember, accurately, what actually occurred during the situation being studied. Also, since the individuals are not trained in the behavioral sciences, that they may not truly understand the nuances of the actions on which they are reporting. The use of single or multiple case studies, instead, allows the researcher to develop and test theories directly through the use of direct, trained observation.

Similar results have been observed in the field of political science. Bock [1970] notes that early work in this field was based on a combination of diaries, biographies, direct observations, and accounts of participants in the various actions and situations that are being studied. Bock [pp 15-18] goes on to list seven key factors that make case research such a rich tradition in this field. These include the following:

1. The ability to focus on issues and subjects
2. The ability to focus on the dynamic interaction of the situation
3. The ability to study a situation at a point in time
4. The ability to study a series of actions over a period of time
5. The ability to study the aspects of the situation
6. The ability to probe a situation in depth
7. The ability to corroborate theories.

Other fields where case studies have been include medicine and the law. Similar to the previously noted areas, the ability to focus on the similarities and differences in individual cases that can demonstrate concepts and theories. In both of these fields, researchers use the advantages described by Bock to describe relationships and propose theories of symptoms and underlying causes of problems. Researchers in these fields also use case research to try to develop methods to attack the problems defined by the original research. In essence, the subsequent research becomes prescriptive, in nature, at this point.

Case research has found its way into business and management research, as well. This has been a logical extension of the psychological and behavioral research. The famous Hawthorne studies conducted by Roethlesberger, et al were based on case studies. As with other fields, business, management, and organization researchers have been drawn to case research due to the ability to observe aspects of administrative actions and decisions. Researchers have been able to observe these reactions to varying stimuli over time, as well. Moreover, the researchers were able to follow up on the original studies to determine both long term effects of the original stimuli and actions as well as to try to determine methods to prescribe more effective administrative decision making. Ratliff [1990] notes that case research has similar results in the fields of accounting and finance, for, basically the same reasons.

BENEFITS OF CASE RESEARCH

The first benefit of case research is that it presents researchers with the ability to study an actual situation in a realistic setting. This allows the researcher to assess not only what happened, but why it happened. This provides the researcher with the ability to determine cause and effect, not simply infer this through correlation analysis. Traditional research methods using large scale, survey research can only provide inferential results based on parametric statistics. Observations through the use of a dynamic case study can allow the researcher to determine the effects of actions on the participants. This argues that case study research lends more credence to the validity of the research than that for library, laboratory, or survey research.

Case studies, as noted, also allow researchers to study the effects of actions over time. This helps to overcome the problem of researchers to try to compare the reactions of different individuals or groups to similar stimuli at different points in time.

Case research also allows us to place the study in the context of the values and culture of an organization or group. Brigley [1995] notes that this enhances the ability actions, especially ethical and values oriented actions within the context of the forces that impact those actions. This is especially important with concepts that rely on the organizational and environmental context of the actions and theories. This also allows researchers to study these actions in their natural, as opposed to laboratory settings. This also allows he research to proceed in an uncontrolled manner. This then allows for a better understanding of the interactive effects of the actions and theories being studied. Finally, case studies allow researchers to study complex processes. This means that researchers can look at the totality of the decision making process as well as the interaction of the various parts of the process.

PROBLEMS OF CASE RESEARCH

The very nature of the benefits become the basis for the problems. The primary problem with case research is the difficulty in generalizing the results of the research. It is difficult to extrapolate the result s of single case studies into a larger context. Similarly, a question is then raised as to the reliability of such research. Since the conditions surrounding the research are always different, it is difficult to determine if the same results would be found under similar circumstances. There is also he issue that the results of the case research need to be analyzed in some manner. While a variety of non parametric statistical methods can be used with case research, as noted by Yin [1988], much of the analysis is typically performed by the researchers on qualitative bases.

Another problem with case research is that is expensive to implement. This is especially true when considering the amount of personnel time required to effectively develop one or more case studies.

COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE

What factors drive firm and industry performance? And can performance be sustained? Strategy researchers have long sought answers to these basic questions. There is general agreement that firms and industries have a competitive advantage if they can continuously and profitably add value. Competitive advantage is achieved by exploiting market opportunities through formulation and implementation of strategies that capitalize on the firm's core competencies. The continuous matching or strategic fit of resources, with market opportunities to achieve organizational purpose (goals), is the task and responsibility of strategic managers.

Researchers from numerous disciplines have studied competitive advantage from various perspectives, including industry structural analysis [Porter, 1980; 84]; resource based strategies and competencies [Hamel]; technology and innovation [Quinn] systems theory [Paine and Naumes]; transaction cost analysis [Williamson]; leadership and general management [Drucker, Andrews]; networks, collaboration, alliances; and learning organizations [Senge]. Case-based research of industries and companies has long been used as an accepted methodological approach to the study and teaching of strategy. In this paper we show how case based research was used by the New Hampshire Industries Group (NHIG) at the

Whittemore School at the University of New Hampshire to show the relationship between firm and industry competitive advantage and strategic type. A supplier typology was developed by NHIG based on several propositions and hypothesis developed through the use of historical economic baseline analyses of industries; survey work; and empirical case study of firms and industries. The major research questions used in its studies are (a) how is competitive advantage created and sustained by NH's SMEs (Small to Medium Size Enterprises), and (b) how does firm performance impact industry value chains? The next section of this paper reports on how each methodology was employed to develop and test a strategic supplier typology. This will be followed by case based examples of how a supplier typology was used to classify firms and illustrate firm specific strategies pertaining to competitive advantage.

NHIG RESEARCH

Since 1991, the New Hampshire Industries Group at the Whittemore School at the University of New Hampshire has conducted ongoing research focusing on the competitive advantage of New Hampshire's industries and firms. Specifically, in studying firm and industry competitive advantage, the group applied three accepted research methodologies: (a) economic base-line analysis of industries, using published government documents; (b) surveys designed to develop, analyze and test several propositions and hypothesis regarding firm and industry competitiveness and strategy; and © case-based research to determine how firms and industries actually compete. In this regard, the research group applied both inductive and deductive logic to the study and development of propositions leading to theory. Loose grain (case study) and fine grain (test of hypothesis) methodologies were combined to enrich our findings and further our understanding of the concept of strategy and competitive advantage. The next sections of the paper discuss how each of the three methodologies was used to classify industries, develop and test propositions, construct a typology to classify firms and illustrate firm specific strategies to gain competitive advantage.

HISTORICAL BASELINE ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF INDUSTRIES

Using baseline economic analysis, NHIG analyzed and studied competitive advantage of its home-based industries and firms. Economic baseline studies were conducted to identify and study industry performance factors and the strategic parameters that drive competitiveness. New Hampshire's leading, emerging, and lagging industries were identified and used as a basis for understanding how firm value chains and industry value chains are constructed and change over time. Baseline economic analysis for the years covering post-World War II to the present were conducted, using data from the U.S. Census of Manufacturers at the two-digit and four-digit Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) code levels for all manufacturing and service industries.

Industries' performance was studied, using several criteria, including: (1) historical growth rates compared to U.S. averages and compared to other industries in the state; (2) performance in exporting in terms of percentage of total shipments and levels; (3) prospects for future growth as indicated by government publications and expert opinions; and (4) the industries overall share of the state's total employment base. since the U.S. Census of Manufacturers is published once every five years, industry studies were updated by using annual data from County Business Patterns. Among the performance criteria used from this source were: growth in employment and wages and value added for all industries in New Hampshire. The New Hampshire industry analysis was replicated for all other states providing industry state comparisons and demographics on the competitive structure of U.S. industries.

The historical analysis identified several industries of importance to New Hampshire's competitive advantage. Two leading industries were identified: Instruments (38), industrial machinery and equipment, except electrical (35). These industries performed extremely well in several measures of industry performance compared to their U.S. counterparts in productivity, wages and exports. Two other industries, electronic and electrical equipment (36) and fabricated metals (34) did not perform as well compared to the U.S. counterparts in real output and productivity and actually declined in employment. However, these industries received special attention because it contains many high technology manufacturers, was a strong exporter, and shared a technological base in electronics and metal working with the machinery (35) and instruments (38) industries that were part of the underlying strengths of New Hampshire's manufacturing sector. Two other industries, chemicals and allied products (28) and primary metal industries (33) also performed well along the key measures compared to the U.S. average, but their small share of total employment in the state (approximately 1 and 3 percent, respectively) was too small to characterize them as leading industries. Still, because of their strong performance they were identified for additional study.

This analysis led us to investigate the underlying factors that drive industry performance in New Hampshire and the region. This also led to analysis of how industries cluster and how New Hampshire firms compete, either directly or through their customers, in global markets. This macro-industry analysis provided insight into the nature of industry value chains, their structure and evolution.

NHIG has continued its analysis of its regions and the nation's industry broken down by performance into three categories: leading, lagging, and emerging. The macro economic analysis was used in conjunction with empirical field and survey work at the industry and firm levels of analysis.

EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATIONS -- SURVEYS AND CONCEPTUALIZING A STRATEGIC TYPOLOGY

To uncover the determinants of competitive advantage, top executives in approximately 400 small to medium sized firms (SME's), having export sales, and found in New Hampshire's leading industries were surveyed on numerous occasions over the last six years. From the surveys, several research questions and propositions were formulated, analyzed and tested. The surveys were also used to specifically study how SME's can take advantage of the trend by OEMs (Original Equipment Manufacturers) to increase the use of strategic outsourcing. Strategic outsourcing allows each industry participant to "do what it does best," that is capitalize on its unique core competencies. This trend led to a reshaping of value chains for many industries and firms and the strategic relationships among industry participants. This is of particular importance to New Hampshire SME's since the survey work found that New Hampshire firms primarily function as parts, sub-components, or component manufacturers to larger original equipment manufacturers, serving clusters of industries on a global scale. As seen in the case-based research later, two of these industries, electronics and automotive, have reshaped their value chain relationships with suppliers through strategic outsourcing. In order to create and sustain a competitive advantage, SME managers have established information exchanges and strategies that utilize linkages with customers, suppliers, and other external parties. These linkages provide an on-going source of process and product innovation for both SME's and OEMs.

Additional survey work uncovered two dimensions by which industry and firm competitive advantage can be studied: collaboration and technology. We combine the two dimensions, collaboration and technology, to form a conceptual typology of four distinct strategic groupings of SME's. We based our research on several studies using typologies in strategy research. For the most part, such typologies have followed Porter's generic business strategies -- low cost, differentiation and focus. The strategic supplier typology also combines research ideas by Methe [1991] and Utterback and Abernathy [1975] on technology with those ideas suggested by Howard [1990] and Rothwell and Dodgson [1991] on collaboration. These dimensions represent different aspects of both internal and external collaboration and management of advanced manufacturing technologies in a way that tends to support the construct of industry strategic groups [Porter, 1980, 1985; Oster, 1990].

OPERATIONALIZING THE STRATEGIC TYPOLOGY

Surveys were also used to empirically test the typology and propositions regarding the relationships among collaboration, technology, performance and competitive advantage. To do this, NHIG gathered data on 200 firms in New Hampshire's leading industries, using a telephone survey. The survey used a questionnaire called "Quickview," developed by the National Institute of Standards and Technology's (NIST) Northeast Manufacturing Technology Center (NEMTC) and the New York State Department of Economic Development. "Quickview" asks questions about ten dimensions: administration management practices, human resources and personnel, market management, bidding estimating and quoting, purchasing/vendor development, product design and engineering, operations management, manufacturing technology, maintenance housekeeping, and quality management. To this extensive survey instrument, we added an addendum that asked additional questions about other determinants of competitive advantage.

We selected variables from the NEMTC questionnaire which best defined: (a) collaborative relationships and (b) manufacturing practices and technologies [NHIG 1997, 1996, 1994]. To construct the two dimensions we summed the variables that operationalized each proposition, using equal weights. A strong positive correlation ® = .44, p = .000) exists between the two dimensions. This strong correlation supported NHIG's previous contention that: (a) suppliers that develop collaborative relationships with their customers tend to be technologically sophisticated; and (b) suppliers that rely on normal market mechanisms to mediate their customer relationships tend to be less technologically sophisticated (see Exhibit 1 - Supplier Strategic Typology).

QUADRANT DESCRIPTIONS - STRATEGIC GROUPINGS

Firms in Quadrant 1 of the typology tend to adopt a low cost strategy in which they use conventional manufacturing practices and technology. They are extremely effective in maximizing the benefits of off-the-shelf technologies and management practices. While these suppliers rarely capitalize on first mover advantage, they are extremely opportunistic in spotting and exploiting existing manufacturing and management practices. As such, these suppliers are expert in imitating and capitalizing on other suppliers' proven innovations. We label firms in this quadrant commodity suppliers (CS).

Quadrant II forms a strategic grouping we call collaboration specialists (CLS). This cell describes firms that have close relationships with their customers, sometimes obtaining customer certification, but they do not engage in early design work. Instead, management specialists are expert in managing the value chain pipeline through innovative advanced management tools and practices. They make parts and deliver them according to detailed customer specifications and delivery schedules. Because the products these firms produce remain under their customers' detailed control, management specialists invest heavily in collaborative and state-of-the-art management practices. They generally purchase off-the-shelf technologies and engage in employee training to meet the customers' requirements. Consequently, Quadrant suppliers invest little, if anything, in their own ability to innovate through advanced manufacturing technologies. Collaboration Specialists gain first mover advantage through expert management of a networked organization, linking them with their customers and suppliers.

Problem-Solvers (PS) are in Quadrant III. They develop collaborative relationships with their customers and suppliers through advanced management practices and methods. The PS's customers certify them and ask them to functionally design products. to solve customer problems, PSs must invest in their managerial, employee, and technical resources to build unique core competencies. The creation of new knowledge developed in the process has led to some organizations being described as learning organizations. The survey work revealed a large subset of New Hampshire SME's that gain competitive advantage as learning organizations or as defined by us as "problem-solvers." Customer demands for innovative solutions force PSs to collaborate closely with their suppliers and customers, constantly pushing the frontiers of new knowledge on process and product technological development.

Quadrant IV defines technology specialists (TS). Technology specialists achieve first mover advantage through advanced manufacturing technologies and proprietary products. Even though these suppliers have advanced technical capabilities, they rarely collaborate with their customers to solve problems. Technology specialists are extremely protective of their process and product technologies and as such maintain a closed organizational structure.

NHIG CASE-BASED RESEARCH

To verify the findings from the historical analyses and the surveys, executives from firms in leading industries, as defined by the performance measures, were interviewed. The field studies provided a basis for a grounded, positive model of competitive advantage. Combining field interviews with the data collected and findings stemming from the macro baseline analysis and survey work, company and industry profiles and cases were developed. companies selected for case studies were identified through the survey work. Each company profile describes the actual strategies and actions used by the SME to gain competitive advantage. The profiles illustrate the appropriateness of the typology for classifying firms and what drives competitive advantage. Three case examples of Problem-Solving Suppliers used in the case-based research are HADCO, Inc., Hitchiner Machinery Company, and JANCO, Inc. Two companies are found in the electronics and electrical equipment industry (36) and one (Hitchiner) in the fabricated metals (34) industry.

HADCO, INC.

HADCO, Inc., is the largest independent manufacturer of printed circuit boards in the U.S. This 1,800 employee company has consistently outperformed its industry group in terms of gross margin; and its complex, high-end circuit boards are used world-wide as components in a diverse array of OEM products.

HADCO stresses commitment to collaboration with customers, suppliers, and employees, and a leader in technology in its vision statement (Exhibit 2). Utilizing "HADCO TEAMS" (a company term) across all its functions, the company assembles several internal and external work groups or teams. The groups included: continuous quality improvement teams, cross-functional task teams, focus groups, and steering committees comprising a mix of operators, technicians, engineers, managers, suppliers and customers. HADCO's customers are among the largest OEM manufacturers in the world operating in four industry clusters specifically targeted by its senior management: computers, telecommunications, industrial automation/medical, and automotive and contract assemblers. HADCO describes its customer linkage strategy as "Listen....Then Leap." Once the customer makes a technical "leap" (usually with HADCO's development engineers), it expects HADCO to "listen" to its needs by developing prototype boards in one of two HADCO "Technology Centers." Once developed, prototypes are moved t one of three HADCO plant where custom or volume quantities of complex, high quality circuit boards are produced, often according to the customer's just-in-time inventory requirements. HADCO's supplier linkage is described in its vision statement as a commitment to form strategic alliances with key suppliers, resulting in continuous improvement in customer service and greater financial stability for both HADCO and its suppliers. Exhibit 2 illustrates NHIG's use of the strategic supplier typology to study HADCO's competitive advantage and its "connectivity" with suppliers and customers.

JANCO, INC.

JANCO is a diversified manufacturer of plastic products, electronic components and specialized circuit boards. Its 150 employees are located in two plants in New Hampshire. It has relied on its reputation for solving difficult manufacturing problems for new customer products to maintain its strategic posture. Management at JANCO emphasizes its ability to adapt its core manufacturing expertise to meet customer needs.

The decline of its traditional computer industry customer base in its electronics division has caused the firm to re-think its practice of operating two business segments, plastics and electronics, as separate entities. New customers, such as medical instruments OEMs, want to draw on the expertise of both units of the firm to meet their needs. This requires JANCO to not only continue their company tradition of maintaining close ties with their customers, but also to integrate the competencies within the entire firm to develop the components required by these customers.

JANCO is now changing its focus to develop the synergy between its principle divisions. Management understands that its main hope for future growth is to continue to develop its innovative manufacturing processes and apply these competencies from the entire company to existing customers as well as new, expanding industries. This will also add to the value that the firm provides its customers.

HITCHINER MANUFACTURING COMPANY, INC.

Hitchiner is one of the largest manufacturers of investment castings in the United States. It has approximately 750 employees located in three sites in New Hampshire, as well as one plant in Mexico. Its customers range from manufacturers of golf clubs to automobiles to jet engines. As with other firms discussed in this paper,, Hitchiner is a supplier to OEMs.

Hitchiner management decided in the mid-1980's to develop strategic alliances with key customers to maintain its technological competence. As the market demanded increasingly more stringent quality at lower cost, Hitchiner found its traditional markets shrinking. The firm developed close, technological ties with one of its major customers, General Motors. This allowed Hitchiner to share knowledge and innovation strategies with its customers. This also allowed the firm to expand on its core competencies of innovative process design and adapt its strengths to the needs of other customers in similar industries. Moreover, as it learned more about its customer's needs, it provided more components, as opposed to individual parts, for its customers. This adds to the value of the products it supplies. This also requires Hitchiner to work more closely with its customers to provide components that fit the product and manufacturing specifications of the customer. Hitchiner has taken the additional route of acquiring key suppliers, where necessary, to maintain its technological and quality lead. Collaborative relationships with suppliers is necessary to be successful in the fiercely competitive industries in which it competes (i.e., automotive, defense, sporting goods).

CASE EXAMPLES - SUMMARY

The case studies build on and complement the macro economic analysis and survey work. The cases illustrated how each company strategically managed technology in concert with customers and suppliers. Each firm attempted to be customer driven and developed corporate cultures that capitalize on unique core competencies and skills. While the three firms followed different strategies, their competitive use collaboration and technology to gain competitive advantage made them successful "problem-solvers."

HADCO, the largest of the three firms, developed two technology centers, one on the east coast and one on the west coast, to develop state-of-the-art prototype boards in an effort to be customer driven and meet customers' sophisticated product needs. Hitchiner established an in-house R&D unit in conjunction with a major customers, General Motors, to improve existing casting technologies and develop new advanced, lighter weight castings at a lower sot to GM. the joint venture had two benefits--one to lower the total cost and improve the product quality for GM, the other allowing Hitchiner to be a learning organization from which it could apply this technology to other businesses (e.g., sporting goods, jet engines, guns). While Hitchiner utilized joint ventures, JANCO, the smallest of the three, relied primarily on developing a cadre of outside consultants and experts and part-time professionals to provide this same form of expertise.

All three firms strove to develop in-house problem-solving capabilities through the learning that transpires by maintaining closer ties with customers and suppliers. their ability to manage technology across the vertical chain required an understanding of their customers' needs. These firms developed the ability to listen to their customers, learn their needs, and adapt their core problem-solving competencies to meet those needs. Collaboration and technology is not a "fad" to these companies, but an integral part of their corporate culture. Each firm exhibits "convergence" in terms of problem-solving capabilities that separated them from other SME's in terms of how they position themselves in their industries, influence what happens in their industries, and exploit market opportunities to gain competitive advantage. They are adept at adding value by matching their collaborative and technology core competencies to industry opportunities.

In summary, by combining case-based research with baseline economic analysis and empirical work, we were able to develop and test several propositions on industry and firm competitive advantage. Also, through this research, we developed and tested a supplier typology that helps to explain the success of competitively advanced industries and firms in new Hampshire. Since the New Hampshire economy can be seen to be a microcosm of the U.S. economy, this typology helps to explain the competitive advantage of advanced industries and firms.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Case research clearly has a strong place in business and administrative studies. As was seen in early studies, case research can provide a valuable tool for developing theories and hypotheses to further extend these fields, as with the fields of psychology and medicine. Alternatively, case research can be used to test and expand theories and hypotheses, as was noted with the competitive advantage research developed by the NHIG and others. What should be noted, however, is that case research is one of many forms of research. They all have their strengths and weaknesses. They are best when used in combinations that build on the strengths of the individual methods, while overcoming their weaknesses as well.

Case research provides a sound and acceptable method for extending research. There are now clear definitions and examples of case research. Our purpose here has been to demonstrate how case studies can be used to enhance research methodology, while maintaining its effectiveness and validity.

EXHIBIT 1
STRATEGIC SUPPLIER TYPOLOGY

LOW	COLLABORATION	HIGH
LOW TECHNOLOGY	COMMODITY SUPPLIER • Spot Market Supplier • Low cost, low price priorities • Little or no differentiation • Can be either captive or independent market mission	COLLABORATIVE SPECIALIST • Detail controlled parts supplier • Cyclical, quasi-dependent market mission Uses a closed network in each industry with few customers in each • Can be in many industries to maintain customer product information
HIGH	TECHNOLOGY SPECIALIST • Proprietary parts supplier • Innovation in product technology used to produce high barriers to entry • First mover advantages • Uses design capabilities for competitive advantage • Counter-cyclical quasi-independent market mission	PROBLEM-SOLVING SUPPLIER • Black box supplier • High differentiation • Independent market mission • Small runs, high process and labor flexibility

Source: Michael Merenda, Allen Kaufman, and Craig Wood, "Patterns of Global Competitiveness: Empirical Evidence on Problem-Solving Suppliers," Proceedings, Globalization of Technology, Manufacturing and Service Operations, Goldring Institute, Tulane, 1994.

EXHIBIT 2
HADCO'S PROGRESSION THROUGH THE SUPPLIER TYPOLOGY

LOW	COLLABORATION	HIGH
LOW TECHNOLOGY	Commodity Supplier 1970s Becomes the largest independent manufacturer of commodity printed circuit boards in the U.S. Rapid growth of three local companies: Wang, Storage Technology, Digital Equipment Corporation.	Collaborative Specialist 1980s Gain early window on emerging technologies by maintaining close ties with primary customers.
HIGH	Technology Specialist 1960s Established to: Serve local computer companies (Storage Technology, Wang, DEC) with high quality, quick turnaround (two to seven days) prototype printed circuit boards.	Problem-Solver 1990s Concentrate on early design, sophisticated manufacturing and close working relationships throughout the value chain and strategic networks.

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TEACHING RESEARCH BY DISTANCE EDUCATION AND COMPUTER TECHNOLOGY

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Abstract

Teaching research by distance education and computer technology is a viable alternative to the more traditional methods; however, it requires modifications in both teaching and learning styles. Contingency plans are needed to address the variations in support technology available to students, their knowledge and skills in using that technology and provide assistance to them as they progress through the course.

INTRODUCTION

Higher education continues to emphasize cost justification, downsizing, and doing more for less. At the same time increasing attention is being given to reaching a greater number of students, including non-traditional students and students in remote areas, and making education in the United States more accessible to citizens of other countries. Given these constraints and initiatives, educators are seeking cost-effective, feasible, and educationally sound methods of providing education to those who desire it. One of the more technological approaches has been through interactive, audiovisual distance education [Mood, 1995]. While distance education can be defined according to the equipment and technology being used, it is simply education from a distance with the goal of learning from a distance, and has been available in a variety of forms for a number of years.

Distance education has numerous advantages, yet it also has inherent constraints that need to be addressed when considering it as an alternative to more traditional approaches. Students can remain in their own communities, continue to be employed, and take courses at convenient hours and in convenient locations. For those who are geographically remote from the main campus, or even in foreign countries, they have the opportunity to take courses, acquire skills and complete degrees from major universities, when such coursework would otherwise have been prohibitive. Students can maintain the support of their families and friends, continue their education in a familiar environment, and still achieve their educational goals. Foreign students can avoid the tremendous impact of moving to another country, and leaving their families, their jobs, and their own cultures.

While establishing and maintaining a distance education center can be extraordinarily costly, teaching large numbers of students at outreach sites can be cost-effective [Swift & Wilson, 1997], and considerably less expensive than transporting or relocating students and faculty [Daniel, 1997]. Distance education also prevents the necessity of adding these courses as on-campus sections, and compounding any existing problems of overcrowded classrooms.

Yet there are disadvantages. The courses tend to be more impersonal with a lack of face-to-face human interaction that normally takes place in classrooms [Strivaby, 1998], faculty offices and social events. Distance education students do not have the same opportunities for faculty mentoring and interactions on the main campus that stimulate scientific inquiry and promote personal development. As a result, these students need to be individually motivated to learn by using these new technological approaches, and be committed to the time and effort involved in an alternative educational modality.

Teaching research by distance education has its own set of issues and challenges to be considered. Because learning the research process frequently involves not only learning the concepts and principles, but applying them through the writing of actual research projects, new mechanisms need to be established for student input and faculty feedback. The purpose of this paper is to examine the teaching of nursing research by interactive audiovisual distance education and computer technology, and some of the various issues and challenges involved.

RELATED LITERATURE

The use of distance education has been widely used in numerous countries to meet the needs of people who are geographically remote [Willis, 1994]. As universities become increasingly cost-conscious and all expenses must be cost-justified, distance education is moving even more into the forefront. Faculty time is critically short compared to the goals and tasks which need to be accomplished. Moving to distance education is one of the approaches being used for more effective time utilization; however, it is not without its own set of challenges. Adapting courses is a part of the process [Billings, 1996]. Distance education programs need to be carefully planned and executed, and implemented only after a thorough examination of the needs and resources [Sherwood, Armstrong, & Bond, 1994]. Thinking of education as a process [Shomaker, 1995], rather than a place on a campus focuses the attention on the assets and potentialities of distance education.

Teaching research from a distance by two-way video technology requires changes in the traditional delivery of the subject matter [Parks & O'Shea, 1995], and the challenges, successes, and technology [Tagg & Arreola, 1996] of offering entire degree programs must now be carefully considered. Teaching nursing research [Parks & O'Shea, 1995] and continuing education courses [Havice & Knowles, 1995] by two-way video technology can be successfully achieved when appropriate strategies are incorporated. Cooperation and facilitation of the experience need to be addressed at the outset. Because of the external nature of the course, site coordinators are essential for the success of the program [Armstrong & Sherwood, 1994].

Technology is furthermore having a profound impact on not only on education but on health care. As technology continues to advance and as nursing informatics continues to evolve as a discipline [Turley, 1996], greater numbers of students are going to be expected to utilize this technology as a part of their actual practice. Hence, exposure to the media available is an essential aspect of the current day educational process.

THE NORTH CAROLINA INFORMATION HIGHWAY

The North Carolina Information Highway (NCIH) is a statewide ATM-SONET broadband network. It is a private-public partnership supported by the telephone companies under protocols established by the North Carolina Internal Resources Management Commission, and has over 130 sites [Global Access]. At UNCW there are two distance education centers with two-way audiovisual synchronous (simultaneous) communication. Each classroom is equipped with television monitors, movable cameras, a document camera, computer equipment and software, and microphones. Technology is available for telephone calls, Faxing, and to show transparencies, videotapes, films, and slides. Each of four sites can be seen simultaneously on the split-screen television monitors, and both students and faculty can see and hear everyone at all sites at the same time. The research course is taught at one site at the university and at sites at two community colleges. The NCIH has been internationally acclaimed as one of the most advanced networks in current existence.

THE PLANNING PROCESS

Extensive planning and coordination are fundamental to the implementation of a distance education program. It needs to be a part of the mission and strategic plan of the college or university, as well as the school or department in which the course is taught and the distance sites. It needs to be supported, in all its aspects, by the participating parties, and be based on a thorough needs assessments. This includes determining who is interested in and committed to distance education courses (the target population), what courses are needed, as well as where and when they will be taught. Legal issues, including applicable copyright laws need to be examined. If two educational institutions are involved, including those in foreign countries, agreements are needed for awarding of credit, FTEs, faculty salaries, and payment of fees. There needs to be an analysis of facilities and technologies available, and any additional needs identified. Who will teach the courses? How will the program be funded? When and where will the courses be taught? What are the outcome goals? What mechanisms will be used for evaluation? Both short and long-range plans are required, as well as an evaluation system to assure that results are continually used to modify and strengthen the program. All of this requires careful planning, sufficient data collection, and a thorough analysis of the information before implementation of the program.

While a distance education program can be located in a designated division of the college or university, having a coordinator in each individual school who is responsible for making the arrangements in more detail is equally important. This is in addition to the coordinator at outreach sites, and in addition to the faculty teaching the courses. Qualified faculty are needed who are dedicated to this type of educational approach. Faculty who are new to distance education may need assistance in modifying their teaching styles, and understanding the concepts involved in technological education.

In the case of a research course, special attention needs to be given to the resources which students will need to meet the expectations of the course. Depending on the course requirements, they may need access to library facilities, e-mail, computer searches, journal articles and monographs, and the computer equipment and software to write the proposal, analyze the data, and prepare the final research document. Librarians have expressed concerns about the problems and challenges of working with distance learning students and meet their course requirement needs [Goodson, 1996]. Access to literature searches and indexes, interlibrary loans, and documents that are not in their home settings may need to be arranged. In rural communities or those that are geographically remote, the lack of on-site resources may even preclude certain course offerings, unless they can be made available through other means, such as the Internet.

TARGET AUDIENCE - THE STUDENTS

The target audience for the distance education nursing research course at UNCW is undergraduate registered nurses, and an occasional on-campus (generic) student, who are employed and/or located at sites external to the university. The university is the only university in southeastern North Carolina and has numerous health care institutions, businesses and governmental agencies, as well as several community colleges located in its service area. The characteristics of the population in the area varies from those in the wealthy beach communities to the rural poor. The region is primarily rural and agricultural, with exception of the port city of Wilmington, on the Atlantic ocean, where the university is located which has a greater metropolitan population of approximately 120,000 residents.

During Fall Semester 1997, twenty two registered nurse graduates from community colleges and one generic student were enrolled in the distance education course. Nearly all were married, employed full-time and had additional family responsibilities. All but one of the students had a two year associate degree in nursing from a community college and all were working to complete their baccalaureate degrees. There were 9 students in the distance education center on the main campus, 8 at one outreach site and 6 at the second outreach site. Both of the latter sites are approximately 60 miles from the university. In a second section of the course, there were 53 generic students enrolled on the main campus, with the instructor responsible for a total of 76 students and 19 research projects.

While there is an extensive distance education program at the university and numerous other nursing courses have been taught via distance education, this was the first time that nursing research had been taught by this method. The course was offered during the evening hours to accommodate the work schedules of the students. The purpose of teaching the course by distance education was to allow students at the two outreach sites to remain in their home communities rather than traveling approximately 1 1/2 to

2 hours one-way to attend the course on campus, and to afford them the opportunity to take the course while they continued their full-time employment. The entire section was made up primarily of RNs in order to facilitate communication and capitalize on their educational and experiential backgrounds. The course is required for satisfactory completion of the nursing program and must be completed prior to the spring semester of the senior year in order for students to graduate that year.

STRUCTURE OF THE COURSE

The major objectives of the course are to assist students to, a) understand the fundamental concepts of research, b) develop basic research skills, c) apply research findings in clinical practice, and d) utilize the research process in their practice after they graduate. The structure of the research course differs considerably from other nursing courses currently being taught by distance education. In the research course students are required to develop a basic research proposal, with the option of implementing it during the second semester, senior year. The topics vary with the interest of the student and generally involve a convenience sample, basic data analysis techniques and a final written document. Students complete the proposal in groups of 4-6, with an occasional student choosing to do the project alone. Honors students taking the same course are required to complete a proposal which becomes the basis of an individual thesis that they complete in a three semester sequence.

During Fall Semester, students enroll in the two credit hour course, learn the basic concepts and develop the proposal. The proposal includes each of the usual research elements from the statement of the problem through the development of the methodology, as well as identification of a potential subject pool. During Spring Semester, they have the option of enrolling in an additional one credit hour course to implement the study. This includes collecting and analyzing the data, and writing the final completed study. Data analysis is generally limited to basic statistics, with the addition of tables and graphs. Students are provided the opportunity to present their research at the end of Spring Semester. Each year approximately 60-70% of the students elect to implement their projects.

All students are required to use a word processing computer program, a spreadsheet, and a basic data analysis package on a microcomputer. All implemented proposals must be submitted to the institutional review board (IRB) of the university for the protection of human subjects and receive approval. Students who choose not to implement, complete the IRB forms but they are not processed through the university.

IMPLEMENTING THE COURSE

During the initial class of the research course, the instructor presents a completed and published clinical research project in its entirety. This presentation gives examples of each of the sections of the project that students will be expected to complete. Throughout the semester the appropriate sections of this research are revisited as examples for the students to use in developing their own research proposals. In addition, in the generic student section (daytime, on-campus), research groups meet with the instructor at scheduled 30 minute sessions each week during the 14 week semester. During these sessions, the students are systematically taken through the stages of the development of their projects. They are required to bring an updated version of their papers as they progress through the development of their proposal. The time is calculated in the total contact hours of the course.

Teaching courses using distance education as the modality, requires special adaptations for success [Chute & Bivens, 1996]. When teaching this particular research course via distance education and computer technology, there are numerous modifications which need to be made in the original design of the course. For example, before class airtime actually begins, there is the necessary setup of overheads for the camera to read, a microphone check, a sound check, and a setup of the computer with appropriate software. Because other faculty are continually using the computer in the distance education centers for their own courses and with the diverse amount of software available, the software appropriate for this course needs to be loaded and configured.

Podium height and the type of materials to be presented are given consideration. Location of students in the room, lighting for media presentations, voice intonation and voice level of the instructor, and even the room temperature and humidity are carefully monitored. There is attention to the appearance of the instructor and location in the room. This greatly resembles preparing for a television interview and observes the same guidelines. Once airtime has begun, there is a check to determine if all sites can be seen and heard, and done so simultaneously. If problems exist, they must be rectified immediately. While this slightly reduces the actual amount of time available for teaching, it ensures a more effective use of remaining airtime. Having experienced, highly qualified technicians at each of the sites to operate the equipment and solve problems is an essential element in presenting the course. Many times astute technicians can foresee problems and solve them before they create an issue for the instructor and students.

During the first class, students are familiarized with the concepts of distance education, the equipment, the cameras, sound checks, and noise control. Because there is a microphone at the desk of each student, extraneous noise is readily a problem. This particular class was scheduled during what would normally be the students' dinner hour, and while students are not usually allowed to eat in the classroom, accommodations were made for eating and drinking - but only noiseless foods! Ten people munching on potato chips can create interesting sound effects, but can also be most distracting; and drinks must be in closed containers to avoid untimely spills into the microphones. During classtime, students are constantly reminded that shuffling papers and opening bookbags is easily heard by everyone on the system. In addition, when more than one student is talking, it can be very difficult to determine which student is speaking and at which site. Students are therefore asked to identify themselves and their site as they begin to make a comment or ask a question. The technician can then make *that* site a full screen and zoom in on a particular student, in any one of the four quadrants.

A number of students openly commented during the course that they were not comfortable being on a full screen television monitor and would prefer to be seen only as a part of the group. It is possible that some students were reluctant to speak or did not ask questions because they were not comfortable with the cameras, microphones and color television monitors, or being videotaped. Some students initially modified what they normally wore to class in order to present themselves better on TV. Students seemed to become more comfortable as the course progressed.

Modifications in at least some traditional teaching approaches are necessary for their use in a distance education classroom. Overhead transparencies are considerably more easy for students to read, and for technicians to project, when they are in horizontal format. Color and graphics especially enhance distance education presentations; however, creating them requires the necessary materials and hardware. Some presentations can be done with the aid of computer software, but when overused, students quickly become bored. Handwriting can be difficult to read and there are *no* chalkboards. Faculty must adapt to writing on a table like surface immediately in front of them, having this projected to the students, and then watching the monitors to determine if what they wrote is readable. Videotapes and films can be projected by the technician, but accommodations need to be made for the faculty member to be seen on the side of the screen if that faculty member wishes to make additional comments during the presentation. Otherwise, the students are simply watching a film, which they can easily do in a library.

Teaching by distance education requires considerable skill and adaptation. New faculty could profit from working with experienced faculty, and certainly from master teachers. Watching and listening for cues that students are not comprehending the information, or that they have questions they have not asked, is part of the process. Faculty normally use non-verbal cues from students in the traditional classroom to help determine when students have questions or do not understand. This is considerably more difficult, if not impossible at times, to see on small screens or a television monitor located 20 feet across the room. Asking students directly, and frequently, if they understand the content helps to alleviate some of the problem.

In preparation for a course, students need to receive their textbooks, course syllabi and miscellaneous handouts in advance of the first class. Arrangements must be made to have these items available at the distance sites. Students need to know who to contact at their local site and on the main campus when materials are not available or when problems arise; and they certainly need to have direct access to their instructor. This reinforces the importance of the outreach site coordinator.

Coming to the distance education experience with a well-focused course to be taught, excellent teaching skills, and a sense of humor is essential. Listening to a boring lecture, in a reduced lighting room, is only accentuated when it is on a large screen television monitor. And moving from one type of technology to another without unnecessary interruption requires experience with the equipment and a thorough knowledge of the subject matter. Loss of class time is a costly use of airtime.

In the distance education environment, there are limited opportunities for individual contact with students, in contrast to those available for generic students. This means the time the instructor normally spends out of class, each week with the generic students in this course, assisting them to understand the information and actually write the various sections of their papers, simply does not exist for outreach students. With these particular distance education students, additional airtime was arranged at the end of the scheduled sessions in order to have individual time with the research groups. Students in these groups did not live in the same communities and airtime also afforded them the opportunity to interact with one another and discuss their research projects.

One of the problems encountered however, was that many of these students had worked all day, and by the end of classtime they were sufficiently fatigued that many of them did not want to stay to discuss their projects. This meant other alternatives had to be developed. These included telephone calls and frequent e-mail contact among students, as well as to and from the instructor. Through e-mail the instructor asked students how they were progressing, what problems they were having, and what content they did not understand. Students who had additional questions or who were reluctant to ask their questions on a television camera seemed much more willing to do so by e-mail - where their questions were not on public display, and were confidential. This applied equally to those students who were having personal problems or whose grades were in jeopardy. Their comments could be heard via e-mail by the instructor, and responded to in a private manner without other students being present. Of course, this approach generates a great deal of e-mail to which the instructor must respond. Over 40 e-mails were received from students on a given weekend with only 23 students in the distance education course and 5 research groups.

The mechanism that seemed to work the most effectively for students to receive timely feedback on their research projects, was to have the students send their papers, or sections of their papers, to the instructor's home e-mail address. Because the students generally met on Sundays due to their work schedules, this meant that the instructor had to be available for several hours on Sundays throughout the course to receive, correct, and return papers via e-mail with attachments. Additional problems were encountered even with this approach. Some of the students had IBM computers and some had Macs. The types of software varied tremendously and not all students could send attachments to the instructor or to other students in their groups. Among the students, there were six different servers being used and some of these were not fully compatible with one another for sending and receiving attachments. This meant that some student groups would send their papers to another group and that group would send their papers to the instructor or another student.

While all students either owned their own computer or had access through their group to a computer, most had never used a computer for word processing and none had used spreadsheets prior to the beginning of the course. This was handled by having the instructor teach both of these on the computer, projected to the television monitors at each site, during the scheduled airtime. Questions and problems with software, throughout the course, were then handled by in-class tutoring, by e-mail and phone conversations during the week. This proved to be extraordinarily time-consuming, but very effective in the overall teaching of the course and assisting students to learn how to run computer software. Teaching students, new to computers, how to enter a table, develop a graph, or run a spreadsheet, using a variety of software, by e-mail or by telephone is a challenging experience - even for the most seasoned faculty member! This could be rectified by requiring students to have basic computer skills before enrolling in the research course.

Students participating in distance education require access to resources which are equivalent to those of the on-campus students. Students in rural areas and in some community colleges, do not always have access to library and computerized resources that exist at major colleges and universities. Students in this research course were taught during class time how to search for articles on the Internet and then how to access the university via their computers to acquire interlibrary loans and other materials. Frequently, the faculty member acquired resources for students and sent them to the outreach sites for their use. Because a research course indeed focuses on research, the lack of adequate resources for these students was problematic.

During the scheduled class time, mechanisms were also established for students to Fax their papers and questions to the instructor. The instructor could comment in the class or Fax a response, or resources, back to the students during airtime. Immediate feedback was of considerable importance to these students. Technicians were available at each site to handle the mechanics of Faxing the information.

During the class the instructor could move to the computer screen and enter a response on the television monitor for all students to read. If for example, the question involved writing an operational definition, setting up a table or chart, or other issues related to the research paper, all students could profit from the response. In addition, each of the classes was videotaped for any student who needed to miss a class or for a student who needed additional review. The videotapes were made available through the main campus distance education facility.

At the end of the course the final paper and human subjects forms with appropriate signatures, had to be sent to the instructor in hard copy. The only mechanism for getting these to the instructor was to use the postal service, or have the materials delivered by one of the students or another designated person (courier). Because the students were not required to attend the main campus at any time during the course, alternative strategies were developed for moving actual papers back and forth between the students and faculty through the postal service.

The unexpected always seems to happen. One evening the equipment failed and on another the power failed. Contingency plans are needed for such eventualities. For these problems, the class was simply moved to the second distance education center on the campus. If a second center were not available, the class could not have been held and the content would have had to be presented in subsequent classes or made up by other means.

At some universities, including this one, outreach students may be required to spend a designated amount of time on the main campus, especially to take examinations and turn in papers. This was not required for this course. This meant that arrangements had to be made for the examination process. A proctor was identified at the outreach sites. This person had the approval of the faculty member of record. The examinations and answer sheets were mailed by overnight mail to the proctor or taken by a courier. The examination was given during the scheduled class time. A photostatic copy of each student's answer sheet was made and retained by the proctor as a safeguard in the event that the answer sheets were lost in the mail. The original answer sheet was mailed to the instructor. One copy of the exam was retained by the proctor for review by the students at the next class and secured in the interim. The instructor then graded the exams. Students sent an e-mail to the instructor requesting their grades by a predetermined code number given to each student. The instructor e-mailed a reply to each student, individually, using only the code number which had been placed on the original examination. No names were used in these e-mails in order to protect the confidentially of the information. The exam was then taken by the faculty member to the next scheduled class and reviewed with the students. At that point, the proctors destroyed the copied answer sheets and returned any exams to the instructor. The coded exams were counted as they were returned.

EVALUATION AND SUMMARY

Student evaluations of the experience indicated considerable satisfaction with the distance education experience, but with some limitations. They indicated that the lack of personal contact and personal interaction with the faculty member and with other students on the main campus were disadvantages. They also expressed problems with learning computer technology - word processing, spreadsheets, and data analysis - at the same time as learning research. There were problems with computer transmissions, namely difficulties encountered with sending research papers by e-mail with attachments. These problems could be at least partially prevented with greater advance planning and coordination, but will predictably diminish as students enter their senior year with increased computer literacy and as software packages and Internet providers hopefully become more compatible. Students expressed the need for the students themselves to take greater responsibility for contacting the instructor with their questions and concerns, rather than relying on the faculty member to continuously seek out the students.

With regard to implementation of the research proposal, 74% of the on-campus, generic students elected to implement their studies, in contrast to 30% of the distance education students. The latter group indicated that their decisions were influenced by having to do the study from a remote location, and having other school, job and family responsibilities. Many felt they could not handle the additional burden of a distance education experience.

The faculty member's evaluation of the course reflected overall satisfaction that the content had been learned by students and the objectives had been met; yet there were frustrations. The primary one centered on the difficulties e-mailing papers. Most of the students began the course basically computer illiterate. The major incompatibilities among word processing software and Internet providers was not resolved during the course. The faculty member subsequently added additional software and a second Internet provider to her own personal computer to resolve at least some of the problems for future course offerings. Being able to teach by e-mail from the instructor's home setting was convenient, even though it involved a greater amount of actual time.

The overall course required a great deal more out-of-class time than the section taught on the main campus. Additional time was required to prepare new transparencies and teaching materials, have examinations ready ahead of schedule, and to handle the many communications from students. It required an extensive amount of time on Sundays and use of the instructor's personal computer in order to meet the time framework needs of the students. Not all faculty are going to be willing to undertake a course with these additional expectations and responsibilities. Some of this was offset by faculty being paid a supplemental stipend to teach distance education courses. The future of such funding is, however, uncertain. Caution is further warranted in increasing class sizes of DE courses to the point that they are in fact no longer manageable for the faculty.

Scheduling additional airtime, at additional costs, for student to student and student to faculty interaction, did not seem to be a solution for communication. Based on this one course, such scheduling would not seem to be appropriate or necessary in the future. It could however, be appropriate for courses offered at different times or for short-term, highly intensive courses.

Having limited contact with students at the outreach sites did not afford the instructor the opportunity to get to know students on a personal basis. Most of these students are known to the instructor only as a face on a screen, an e-mail address, and a grade on a spreadsheet. When there were conflicts among the members of a research group, they had to be resolved by e-mail and on the telephone, rather than by meeting with the students and encouraging dialogue. This lack of personal, student-faculty interaction could potentially limit the ability of the faculty member to recommend students for employment or graduate school admission, based on anything other than grades. A statistical analysis comparing grades between the two sections of the course has not been done due to the large differences in the size of the on-campus section and the three distance education sites. This data is being compiled for future analysis.

The positives aspects, however, were that students did not need to commute to complete the course, and all students at the three sites were able to meet the course requirements successfully. Faculty likewise, did not have to commute to the outreach sites. This significantly reduced commuter and relocation costs for the institution, and both costs and inconvenience for the students. As class sizes for outreach students continue to increase, a greater number of students can be accommodated, assuming that some of the problems have been rectified.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The goal of learning by distance education was indeed met and the students were generally satisfied with the experience. Given its advantages and limitations, distance education is a viable modality for teaching research and assisting students to complete their program requirements; however, both students and faculty need to be committed to making the experience a successful one.

Given the preceding premises, the following recommendations are offered:

1. Require basic computer literacy by all students prior to the beginning of the course, and an ability to use software specified for the course being offered.
2. Develop a list of Internet providers to be used and test their compatibility prior to the beginning of the course.
3. During the initial class, allow students time to experience being on television monitors and having microphones.

4. Evaluate library holdings and resources in advance. Develop strategies for meeting resource needs of students.
5. Encourage students to purchase and/or use approved and standardized computer software. When feasible, have students share this information with others in their groups at the initial class.
6. Require students living in relatively close proximity to the main campus to take examinations on the campus with other students enrolled in the course.
7. Require two visits to the main campus during the semester to meet with faculty and other students. This could be scheduled on the day of examinations.
8. Request faculty to teach only one distance education course per year, unless they are otherwise inclined.
9. Request students to provide the instructor with a brief summary of their professional profile, prior to the course. Students could add any personal comments that they wished to share.
10. Schedule time during at least one class early in the course for students to get to know each other and the instructor on a more personal basis.
11. Encourage faculty salary supplements to offset the increased expectations, personal costs, and responsibilities of faculty teaching distance education courses.

Further research is needed comparing both student learning and satisfaction between on-campus and distance education students, as well as analyzing their perceptions of the experience over time, and as they enter clinical practice and graduate programs. Additional research is also needed comparing the direct and indirect costs of distance education for this type of course and examine the total benefits to both the students and the institution.

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TEACHING AS COMMUNITY PROPERTY: ASSESSING THE QUALITY OF THE UNDERGRADUATE EXPERIENCE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA

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Abstract

Public research universities are often criticized for the poor quality of life experienced by their undergraduate students. As the university's role of *in loco parentis* has diminished, so has their involvement in co-curricular and student learning activities that take place outside the classroom. In response to these criticisms, the University of Georgia appointed a campus-wide, interdisciplinary task force to evaluate the state of the undergraduate experience and to submit recommendations for its improvement. This paper describes the purpose, activities, findings and recommendations of this task force. Implications for managing change in higher education through collaboration are discussed.

PROBLEM SETTING

Public research universities are expected to provide quality educational opportunities to the children of its tax-supporting citizenry. Historically, educational quality was defined holistically to include learning, personal development and student development [Knapp]. A college education was considered community property where parents and the larger citizenry could shape the learning environment of students. Colleges were expected to serve *in loco parentis* (as surrogate parents) and provide for the intellectual, spiritual and social well-being of students. Witness such artifacts as deans of men (women), dorm mothers, curfews, dress-codes, unisex dorms and alcohol prohibition.

In recent years the university's willingness and ability to provide for the personal development of students has declined. This decline can be attributed to factors which have shaped the larger society. First, the anti-war movements of the 1970's increased the public's distrust of government. Students rebelled against college administrators and sought to dismantle the college's long-held role of *in loco parentis*. Second, new found freedoms of college students were bolstered by civil libertarians who advocated students' right to privacy. These rights manifested themselves in the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act of 1974 (commonly known as the Buckley Amendment) which, among other rules, prohibits colleges from disclosing grades to the students' parents, even when the student is having serious academic problems.

Third, colleges have grown in size and diversity. The personal interest in students that occurs in a small college environment is difficult to achieve in today's mega-universities with their tens-of-thousands of students. The decline in popularity of campus housing (residence halls), the growth in off-campus housing and increases in non-traditional students have led to a de-personalization of colleges campuses. Fourth, the availability and prestige of research grants have captured the interest and energies of universities at the expense of their teaching programs. Limited by tuition revenues and state funds for teaching, many public universities sought to build their reputations on their research programs. While proponents of the modern research university have argued that research and teaching are complementary, the reality of funding educational programs has been disappointing. Teaching and the quality of student life have became secondary as class size, student-teacher ratios and the number of graduate student instructors have increased. In the more extreme cases, teaching awards stigmatize a faculty's potential for promotion and faculty rewards include release time from teaching.

Critics of the modern research university argue for a reexamination of the undergraduate experience [Boyer; Vincow; Kuh, Sanders and Burton; Forman and Wilkinson; Sullivan]. Parents and civic leaders share similar concerns as they read about campus cheating, binge drinking, date rape, AIDS, racism, violence and suicides. Universities have responded to these concerns by creating departments of student affairs, separate and distinct from departments of academic affairs. Departments of student affairs generally focus on non-academic aspect of student life, including health care, student clubs, recreational activities and social conduct. Academic affairs are concerned with curriculum matters, admissions policies and scholarship. This segmentation of the undergraduate experience into social and academic affairs is largely artificial; fails to integrate social and intellectual development and has little relevance to post-college life [Knapp]. Establishing specialized departments of student affairs has disconnected many faculty members from student life activities outside the classroom. Students view faculty as being inaccessible and uncaring while faculty have fewer opportunities to learn about the personal lives/problems of their students. Students, in turn, feel disconnected from the academic community as the undergraduate experience is increasingly defined in social rather than academic terms.

This paper describes a public research university's efforts to critically examine the quality of its undergraduate programs. The objectives of this paper are (1) to examine events that preceded the university's appointment of a task force to assess the quality of the undergraduate experience, (2) to describe the purpose, activities, findings and recommendations of this task force and (3) discuss implications for managing change in higher education through collaboration are discussed.

THE UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA EXPERIENCE

BACKGROUND

Concerns about the undergraduate experience at public universities have particular relevance to the University of Georgia. Chartered in 1785, the University of Georgia is one of the oldest state chartered public universities in the United States. This comprehensive research university has 13 separate schools and colleges and over $209 million in research funding (1997). The University is a residence campus with a Fall 1997 enrollment of 21,771, undergraduates, 2369 professional and 5375 graduate students. To many residents, the University of Georgia is considered the flagship of higher education in the State of Georgia. In recent years, the University has developed one of the strongest academic reputations among public universities in the southern U.S. Financially, the University is considered by *Money Magazine* as one of the 9 best bargains in higher education in the United States [Adams, 1998b].

The University's academic reputation is a rather recent phenomenon. For many years, the University with its open-admissions policy, was considered by many to be a "party school." Academics were of secondary importance to social activities. The University was better known for its athletic programs than for its scholarship. In the mid 1980's the school's athletic programs came under intense scrutiny when a 2.1 million dollar law-suit was filed against the University by a faculty member who was purportedly fired for refusing to change the grades of key athletes. This law suit contributed to the resignation of the University's President and Vice-President for Academic Affairs and, ushered in a new administration with the express mandate to "clean-up" the University's athletic programs and to redirect its energies into building an academic reputation. To lead this challenge, Dr. Charles B. Knapp was appointed in 1987 as the 20th president of the University. He would spend ten years in office and preside over one of the most prosperous and progressive decades in the University's history. In his final year, he would appoint the Task Force described in this paper. The events that led to his appointing the Task Force merit discussion.

During the Knapp administration the University has witnessed unparalleled increases in academic standards and enrollments. The average SAT (Scholastic Achievement Test) score had risen from 1100 in 1987 to 1190 in 1997. During that same period, University enrollments increased from 26,547 to 29,692. These gains in academic standards can be attributed to a number of factors. A major contributor to the rise in academic standards has been the implementation of Georgia's HOPE scholarship program, the brainchild of Georgia's governor, the Honorable Zell Miller. Funded by state lottery funds, the HOPE Scholarship program pays college tuition for all Georgia high school students with a "B" average or better, who attend public or private colleges and universities in Georgia. College students can keep the HOPE scholarship by maintaining a "B" average. The scholarship pays about $1000 per academic quarter and is sufficient to pay for tuition and some books. The scholarship's impact on academic standards has occurred primarily from increased competition for admission. That is, the HOPE scholarship has made college attendance more affordable and attending out-of-state colleges more costly. Hence, applications to Georgia colleges and universities have increased, including applications to the University of Georgia. Applications outstripped capacity and rejection rates increased to manage enrollments. This more selective admission policy has dramatically increased the academic credentials of entering freshmen. Approximately, 95 percent of freshmen entering the University, Fall quarter 1997, were on the HOPE Scholarship.

Other factors that have contributed to the rise in academic standards have been a commitment by the University (prior to the HOPE scholarship program) to offer merit scholarships, funded by the University of Georgia Foundation. The University's merit scholarship program has become one of the most competitive in the country and has been used to attract some of the brightest students in the State. Another contributing factor resulted from a change in admissions policy implemented by the state's Board of Regents, the governing body for all state colleges and universities. Under the leadership of Chancellor Stephen Portch, the Board segmented the state's colleges and universities into levels of excellence/difficulty and implemented differential admissions standards. This permitted the state's larger universities to impose higher admissions standards while directing less-competitive applicants to the state's system of junior and senior colleges. Some students who might have been accepted to the University of Georgia under previous admissions have had to attend other colleges and seek admission to the University as transfer students.

The University's rise in academic stature has been met with some controversy. Critics have argued that the University has become elitist in its admissions policy and is no longer serving the citizens of the state. In practical terms, attending the University of Georgia is no longer a right for children of University alumni but is based on academic merit. Critics also argue that groups that have traditionally scored lower on standardized tests and students from poor local school systems, have more difficulty gaining admission. At issue is how higher admissions standards will impact minority enrollments, cultural diversity, and access by students to university colleges that are unique to the state, i.e., agriculture. The controversy has also prompted the University to increase in-state enrollments at the expense of out-of-state enrollments. Without a commensurate increase in faculty resources and facilities, increased enrollments threaten the quality of the undergraduate experience.

CHALLENGE

Despite these controversies, the University's rise in academic stature, its more selective admissions policy and the HOPE scholarship are viewed by many other states as "desirable" problems. Yet, why the University's sudden concern for the quality of the undergraduate experience? That is, why mobilize a campus-wide, interdisciplinary task force to assess a seemingly successful academic initiative? While the administration's motivation is subject to speculation, proponents of the Task Force have charged that the University's teaching programs have yet to match the rise in the academic credentials and expectations of its students. Does the University offer a richer, more rewarding and more challenging undergraduate experience, or are students being taught the same as they were a decade ago? The University has an opportunity to have not just outstanding students but also, outstanding educational programs. Critics, have argued that the surge in admissions standards and scholarships have (to date) done little to enrich the University's academic programs. Critics have argued that the most obvious impacts have been in the number of new Sports Utility Vehicles driven by students rather than the quality of undergraduate programs.

The University was particularly concerned about the impact of student life on student learning. A recent survey of University students cited *stress* and *substance abuse* as problems that affect the largest number of students on campus [Kinder]. Stress related problems reported by students include time constraints (64%), depression (60%), relationship problems (52%), money problems (44%), loneliness (40%), family problems (26%), eating/weight problems (24%) and roommate problems (20%). Regarding substance abuse, 80% of University students reported drinking alcohol and 57% reported binge drinking [Kinder]. The impacts of alcohol consumption and academic performance were well-documented in a Columbia University Center Study on Addiction and Substance Abuse (table 1). Relationships between binge drinking and unplanned sexual activity, sexually transmitted diseases, date rape, violent crimes, and accidents and injuries have also been documented.

TABLE 1
AVERAGE GRADE RELATIVE TO NUMBER OF ALCOHOL DRINKS PER WEEK

Average Grade	Number of Drinks
A	3.6
B	5.5
C	7.6
D or F	10.6

Source: Columbia University Center on Addiction and Substance Abuse, 1994

CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Against this backdrop, then President Knapp appointed a task force to critically examine the quality of the undergraduate experience at the University. The conceptual model used by the ask Force was adopted from a teaching initiative sponsored by the American Association for Higher Education entitled, "Making Teaching Community Property." As Pat Hutchings, director of the AAHE Teaching Initiative has noted [p.3]:

> *". . . the problem . . . is not that the state of teaching (on college campuses) is bad and needs to be fixed, not that there aren't plenty of good and dedicated teachers out there. The problem is the lack of a campus culture in which the quality and improvement of teaching are subjects of ongoing collective faculty attention and responsibility."*

The Task Force began with the premise that the quality of the undergraduate experience is not limited to activities that take place in the classroom. Co-curricula and out-of-class activities were viewed as integral parts of undergraduate life. The Task Force sought to develop a "community" of individuals and groups who have a stake in the undergraduate experience and then to develop a dialogue among these diverse groups. In particular, the Task Force sought to create dialogue among groups that focus on academic affairs with those that focus on student affairs. Its long range goal was to create a culture where all stakeholders take responsibility for the quality of the undergraduate experience. With this goal in mind the following individuals were appointed to the Task Force.

TABLE 2
TASK FORCE ON THE QUALITY OF THE UNDERGRADUATE EXPERIENCE, UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA, 1997

Committee Member	Position	Department
Jere Morehead, Chair	Professor	Legal Studies
William Bracewell	Director	Student Affairs
Joe Broder	Professor	Agricultural & Applied Economics
Katheryn Davis	Director	Social Work
Robert Goodwin	Academic Coordinator	Athletics Office
Peggy Kreshel	Professor	Journalism and Mass Communication
Mary Anne Lahey	Public Service	Institute of Community & Area Dev.
Byron Marshall	Undergraduate	Student Affairs
Barry Palevitz	Professor	Botany
William Porter	Associate Vice President	Student Activities
Irene Prue	Graduate Assistant	Student Affairs
George Stafford	Director	Auxiliary Services
Carol Winthrop	Assistant to Vice President	Academic Affairs

CHARGE TO TASK FORCE

At the time the Task Force was appointed, President Knapp had announced his intentions to resign as president. Thus, the findings/recommendations of the Task Force would be presented to the incoming president, Dr. Michael Adams. Given this unique opportunity, the Task Force was asked to be both critical in its assessments and creative in its recommendations. The charge to the Task Force was as follows:

1. Prepare an inventory of existing programs offerings, service learning opportunities, etc. which contribute to the quality of the undergraduate experience on campus. Essentially, prepare an organized review of the various "student life" components which exist today.
2. Invite input from currently enrolled students on the "state of the undergraduate experience" on campus and provide a report on their comments, observations, and suggestions. Include input from faculty administrators in the report as well.
3. Submit recommendations on ways the current quality of the undergraduate experience at the University may be enhanced. Study the "Freshman Year Experience" and "Service Learning" concepts. Other specific areas include the role of the faculty and the adequacy of campus facilities for enhancing the undergraduate experience at the University.
4. The Task Force is requested to structure its work in such a way that items one and two may be completed and reports submitted to President Knapp not later than May 30, 1997. The Task Force should submit its recommendations to the new president of the University not later than July 1, 1997.

FORUM FORMAT

A systematic review of the various "student life" components was used to identify university groups with an interest in the quality of the undergraduate experience. While the review of student life from secondary reports revealed much about the breadth of services available to students, it did not reveal student assessments about the usefulness of these services or how readily students used these services. To learn about these subtleties of student life, a series of face-to-face forums with various campus groups were arranged (table 3).

TABLE 3
CAMPUS FORUMS ON THE QUALITY OF THE UNDERGRADUATE EXPERIENCE, 1997

Forum	Date	Task Force Members
Leadership UGA	March 22	All members
Academic Symposium	April 11	All members
Lilly Teaching Fellows	April 14	Kreshel, Palevitz, Winthrop, Lahey*
Greek Life Students	April 15	Morehead, Bracewell, Porter, Kreshel,* Davis
Minority Students	April 17	Morehead, Bracewell,* Davis, Lahey, Marshall
Student Athletes	April 22	Morehead, Broder, Goodwin,* Palevitz, Stafford
Honors Students	April 23	Morehead, Broder, Prue,* Palevitz
International Students	April 25	Morehead, Bracewell,* Kreshel
All Students (Open)	April 29	Morehead, Goodwin, Porter,* Prue, Marshall
Student Volunteers	April 30	Morehead, Davis, Lahey, Porter, Prue*
All Faculty/Staff (Open)	May 6	Morehead, Broder,* Stafford, Lahey
Young Alumni	May 6	Morehead, Kreshel,* Winthrop
Hall Residents	May 7	Morehead, Marshall, Palevitz, Prue, Stafford*

**Denotes recorder for session*

Forums were scheduled throughout Spring Quarter at locations, on and off campus. The first two forums were held off campus and all Task Force members were invited. The 1½ day Academic Symposium was held in an off-campus conference center and was attended by 100 University faculty and staff. The proceedings from that Symposium is cited in the Reference section. The remaining forums were attended by 4-5 Task Force members with one member designated as recorder. Their duties were to prepare notes of the forum for the Task Force as a whole.

The forums were generally designed for open and frank dialogue on the quality of the undergraduate experience. Forum participants were ask to respond to the following questions, in the following order:

1. Describe the positive aspects of the undergraduate experience at the University of Georgia. What aspects of undergraduate life do you believe the University is doing well?
2. Describe the negative aspects of being an undergraduate at the University. Within this context, why did you choose to attend the University, what were your expectations and what have been your greatest frustrations and disappointments?
3. How would you describe the ideal undergraduate experience and what can the University do to improve the quality of the undergraduate experience?

The Task Force wanted to avoid forums dominated by complaints and criticisms and sought to get constructive suggestions from the participants. This format proved to be most constructive and informative. Student groups were especially vocal about the positive and negative aspects of the undergraduate experience. The level of maturity and insights into university problems by students groups came as a surprise to many of the Task Force members. Students attending the forums expressed appreciation for being invited to the forums and for the University's willingness to solicit their input.

PRELIMINARY REPORT

Comments and suggestions from the various forums were summarized in the Task Force's preliminary findings on the quality of the undergraduate experience. Issues and themes that emerged from the discussions are as follows:

Culture of Lifelong Learning

An overarching philosophical goal that emerged from the study was the need to foster a culture of curiosity and lifelong learning in our students as they arrive on campus. Dedication to and respect for learning are the primary ingredients for academic success and enables student to get the most out of their undergraduate experience

Freshman-Year Experience and Orientation

Students consistently expressed a desire for meaningful interaction and supportive relationships with faculty to begin their academic career.

Rewarding Teaching

While the University has made great strides in recognizing outstanding teaching, faculty and student share the perception that teaching is not valued in the existing reward structure.

Student/Faculty Interaction

Students noted that the quality of student/faculty interactions is, perhaps, the most important factor contributing to the overall quality of the undergraduate experience.

Academic Advising

While some students expressed satisfaction with their advising experience, many were clearly unhappy. Students complained that their advisors were not knowledgeable about the majors, offered incorrect advice, were not interested in their career goals, cared little about them as people, and rushed them through advising sessions.

Campus Housing

There is a general consensus that the University needs to critically examine their approach to campus housing. Given the University's desire to create a culture of learning, one good place to start is the residence halls where many students live.

Service Learning

Throughout the forums, students noted that the opportunities for out-of-class learning experiences were important to the overall quality of their education. Traditional experiential learning opportunities, along with volunteer service and community outreach, provide students with opportunities to broaden their understanding of course materials, to practice their profession in real-world settings, and to develop a sense of shared responsibility to society.

TASK FORCE RECOMMENDATIONS

The Task Force examined the issues and themes that emerged from the forums, in light of the inventory of student life resources and activities. The Task Force also complied and reviewed existing research on the quality of the undergraduate experience at other institutions. This information served as the basis for the Task Force's recommendations to the President.

1. Modify the freshman orientation program to include more involvement by faculty. Provide opportunities for a more in-depth look at the University so students will be well-equipped when they arrive on the campus to start classes. Orientation is an opportunity to set a scholarly tone from the beginning of

college and to introduce students to a community of learning. Testing for student proficiency in college courses should be scheduled separately from orientation.

2. Initiate a freshman convocation program before classes begin in which special activities would welcome freshman and assist them in adjusting to the academic rigors and social challenges they face as they make the transition to university life. Students and their parents would be invited to the Convocation which would include greetings from officials and a formal address by a distinguished scholar. The Convocation would be followed by a President's reception and "Freshman Fair" where student clubs, organizations and support activities would be presented.
3. Establish a freshmen seminar course, require freshmen to enroll their first semester and limit enrollment to 20 students per class. Classes would be taught by full-time faculty, and focus on major current events. A freshman seminar course will promote student learning, link the faculty with the student body in a personal and meaningful way, and help students develop analytical, advocacy, and writing skills early in college.
4. Establish a faculty merit raise pool to reward teaching effectiveness equal to that earmarked to reward research productivity and weigh teaching and research productivity equally in promotion and tenure decisions. To promote greater faculty involvement with students, the university must develop a mechanism for rewarding faculty interaction with students, both inside and outside the classroom.
5. Enhance the quality of advising campus-wide and provide adequate resources to support, train, and promote quality advising. Students should be afforded personal, face-to-face advising by faculty and professional staff. Faculty must play an essential role in advising, especially at the upper division level. Faculty should be afforded adequate training in curriculum and career advising. A peer mentor program should be established in which lower division and upper division students are networked.
6. Increase student involvement in out-of-class learning programs. The University should do more to acknowledge the importance of out-of-class learning, identify and support activities and programs, and systematically encourage all students to include out-of-class learning in their overall education.
7. Create an office of service learning as a centralized site for the coordination, promotion, and expansion of service-learning activities. Service learning is one very successful model for blending community service and academic course work in a way that each is enriched by the other. Service learning is characterized as course-based participation in community service and reflective activities that meet identified community needs, foster appreciation of course content and academic discipline, and enhance students' civic responsibility.
8. Create physical spaces conducive to learning when developing plans for new buildings and renovating existing structures. There is a close relationship between a community of learning and the physical spaces in which that community exists. Three areas of facilities planning identified by the Task Force were: academic/classroom environments; living environments (campus housing); and out-of-class environments.
9. Establish a dean of freshmen that reports directly to the President or Provost. University freshmen lack an effective advocate that transcends existing administrative lines. A Dean of Freshmen will provide such an advocate and address at least three critical goals: (a) to instill institutional values and expectations for freshmen, (b) to support the building of meaningful relationships between faculty and freshmen; and (c) to disseminate valuable information and develop programming and resources to support a freshman-year experience program.
10. Launch a $100 million dollar capital campaign to fund the programs proposed in this report and strengthen existing programs that enhance the quality of the undergraduate experience. Activities and programs to enhance the quality of the undergraduate experience will require additional funds as well as substantial investments in personnel and physical facilities. Given these concerns, there should be strong support throughout the state for a capital campaign to enhance the quality of the undergraduate experience.

DISCUSSION

The Task Force's recommendations were made public in November 1997. While the university community was complementary of the Task Force's efforts, some groups in the University were critical. The recommendations that proved to be the more controversial were the appointment of a Dean of Freshmen and the Capital Campaign. Of the Task Force's recommendations, these in particular would have the greatest budgetary impacts. A Dean of Freshmen would require a reorganization of the University's administrative structure. The Capital Campaign to enhance the quality of the undergraduate experience would be expected to take priority over existing and planned capital campaigns for other campus projects and activities.

Some groups consider the Task Force's recommendations as being "lofty" and not based on measurable standards or objectives. Total Quality Management advocates argue that quality improvement efforts should first establish benchmarks from which the success of programs and activities can be measured [Gilbert, et al]. While Task Force efforts to establish qualitative benchmarks were minimal, such efforts could be used in establishing priorities and implementing the various recommendations.

The Task Force's report was given to the new president, Dr. Michael Adams, prior to his arrival on campus in September 1997. President Adams subsequently met with the Task Force. His initial reaction at that meeting was one of curiosity and appreciation. He asked for more time to study the recommendations and offered to meet with the Task Force again in the future. President Adam's first public response to the recommendations were made as part of his first State of the University Address. In his address, the President embraced the philosophy of the Task Force with the following remarks [Adams, 1998a, p.2]:

> *First and foremost, everything that we do should be aimed at improving the ultimate experience for each student, be he or she an undergraduate, graduate, of professional. The student - not the administration, not the faculty, and not the support staff, as important as all of those elements are- is central to the core of any university, and service to that student is, at the most basic level, our reason for being.*

The President's specific proposals to enhance the quality of the undergraduate experience include: exploring the improvement and expansion of residential life on campus, building a centralized student learning center; creating a $100,000 fund to support academic and social interactions outside the traditional classroom setting, and having 10 percent of the undergraduate graduating class with residential foreign experience within the next five years. Administratively, the President will propose a plan that would give the Senior Vice President for Academic Affairs and Provost, authority over administrative offices of student affairs and instruction. If implemented, this structure will allow for greater integration of programs to enrich the academic and social experience of students.

The President's comments and proposals were noteworthy considering the University's reputation for being a "publish or perish" institution. For an incoming president to state publicly the first priority of a research university is the quality of the educational experience is considered bold in the historical context of the University. Clearly, these comments suggest that the University has reaffirmed its commitment to teaching and is prepared to support a more balanced view of scholarship [Boyer, Magner].

In a larger perspective, the work of the Task Force and the President's initial support for some of its recommendations are worth noting. While other research universities have embarked on similar self-studies on the quality of their educational programs, the University of Georgia's efforts are unique in the face of increasing enrollments and financial support. For many institutions, improving the quality of the undergraduate experience has been a marketing strategy needed to attract students, to stem declining enrollments and, in some instances, to survive. The University is fortunate enough to have a surplus of applicants and is aiming to increase the academic experience while the resources and students are available. Some critics fear that the benefits of the HOPE scholarship may be diluted as more educational groups compete for lottery revenues. Others fear that the political resistance to restrictive admissions standards will limit the University's ability to increase its academic stature. Still, the prospects of enhancing the quality of the undergraduate experience is a challenge and opportunity that few public universities can rightfully ignore.

While the recommendations of the Task Force promise to enhance the quality of the undergraduate experience, the process of bringing together diverse campus groups to address a campus-wide problem was beneficial in and of itself. The size and complexity of many universities discourage meaning dialogue between students, faculty and support groups. Such dialogue among the various campus groups is essential in managing change in higher education.

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A PHENOMENOLOGY OF TEACHING WITH LAPTOP COMPUTERS: A CASE STUDY THROUGH THE EYES OF A TRAINER

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Abstract

Teaching with laptop computers (or laptops) is a new phenomenon in educational institutions. A review of the literature shows that laptops are being used as a learning tool from the perspective of how learners use laptops rather than how a trainer uses a laptop as a teaching presentation medium. This research project is the first phenomenological case study on teaching with a laptop from a trainer's perspective; this offers new implications on how to use this medium effectively. This study explores the essential elements of teaching with laptops and attempts to understand the teaching and learning process when using laptops.

INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE

Teaching with laptops is a new phenomenon in educational institutions because of the dramatic decline in desktop and laptop computer prices and advanced computer capabilities. Seton Hall University in New Jersey started its mobile computing program in September, 1997. More than 320 undergraduate students from biology, business and the honors programs have received their laptops [McCarthy, 1997]. Seton Hall University faculty members connected with Seton Hall mobile computing programs have also received laptops as a new teaching tool. The mission statement of the Seton Hall University Mobile Computing [1997] states: "Seton Hall University, through its Mobile Computing effort, is taking the first steps toward this new kind of teaching and learning environment, supported by information technology, and ensuring basic access to all our students."

The Resmer, Mingle, and Oblinger Report [1995], Computers for Students: A Strategy for Universal Access to Information Resources, proposes a strategy of putting networked computing devices into the hands of all students at institutions of higher education. It outlines the rationale for such a strategy, the options for financing it, the required institutional support structure needed, and various implementation approaches. The report concludes that the resultant optimal environment is a laptop computer for every student with sufficient network access points, on and off campus. The rationale for this environment looks at changes in models of education, the need for improved communication, rapid changes in technology, and the changing nature of students.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The central problem of this investigation is: How can laptops be used as a teaching medium? The following questions are specifically related to this problem:

1. Are there certain essential elements of teaching with laptops?

2. What is the teaching and learning process when using laptops?
3. What kind of subject matter is appropriate for teaching with laptops?
4. What are the advantages and disadvantages of teaching with laptops?

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this case study is three-fold: (a) to explore the essential elements of teaching with laptops; (b) to understand the teaching and learning process when using laptops; and (c) to recommend new methods of teaching and learning with laptops.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Teaching with laptops has many apparent advantages. However, scientific research is needed in order to understand: What constitutes teaching with laptops? Why do we want to teach with laptops? How, wh[illegible] and where should we teach with laptops? A better understanding of the characteristics of teaching with laptops will help us better utilize this new teaching medium.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

1. "Phenomenology" is, in the 20th century, mainly the name for a philosophical school of thought and research practice. A primary objective of phenomenology is "the direct investigation and description of phenomena as consciously experienced, without theories about their causal explanation and as free as possible from unexamined preconceptions and presuppositions" [Speigelberg, 1975, p. 3].
2. A "case study" is a detailed examination of one setting, or a single subject, a single depository of documents, or one particular event [Merriam, 1988]. "The data collection and research activities narrow to sites, subjects, materials, topics, and themes. From broad exploratory beginnings they move to more directed data collection and analysis." [Bogdan and Biklen, 1992, p. 62].
3. "Laptop computer" is a small portable computer light enough to carry comfortably, with a flat screen and keyboard that fold together [Dyson, 1994]. A laptop computer is commonly called a laptop. A laptop is battery-operated with color LCD (Liquid-crystal display) display screen. With the advances in computing technology, a laptop can perform as a full-sized desktop computer.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A review of the literature focused on the relationships among the concepts of phenomenology, case studies, laptops, and teaching. The literature on these inter-related subject areas provided a conceptual framework for this study and put it in a larger context.

PHENOMENOLOGY, CASE STUDIES AND EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Cashman and McCraw [1993] introduced the case study, the use of ethnography, and phenomenological methods and techniques of research as approaches to qualitative research in the area of educational technology. Both ethnography and phenomenological research are interpretive and descriptive forms of research. The ethnographic investigation focuses on the social organization of a group to examine the cultural processes and perspectives of those within the culture. Meaning assigned to experience and behavior in a culture results from a complex mixture of objects, situations, and events. Phenomenological researchers believe that there are multiple ways of interpreting events for each person and that these interpretations are what constitute reality for each person. A case study provides a holistic description of an environment. Case studies may be written at different analytic levels and result in different products, depending on the research questions. Research questions may be vague at the beginning of a qualitative study, but they are refined in the study process.

Pramling [1995] explored the use of phenomenology in educational practice. Phenomenology holds that learning implies perceiving, conceptualizing, experiencing, or understanding something differently.

Buske-Zainal [1995] conducted a hermeneutic phenomenological study with the full-time faculty of a small engineering college. "What is it like to be teaching together?" was the guiding question. They made specific recommendations on ways of "being open to the possibilities" in the academic life, thereby having the opportunity to realize one's full potential as a human being. "Being open to possibilities" involves encouraging teachers and students to be creative inquirers who appreciate diverse ways of gaining knowledge that cross academic boundaries from the spiritual, literary, and artistic domains to those often associated with science and technology and grounded in logic.

Cohen [1994] presented a phenomenological approach to provide an understanding of two types of bibliotherapy (BT). Interactive BT involves a reader, reading material, and a facilitator, while self-help BT needs no therapist feedback. The results supported the value of self-help bibliotherapy and client teaching.

Brown [1996] described the mathematics classroom from the perspective of social phenomenology. He introduced a framework through which mathematical work is seen as taking place in the imagined world through the filter of the real world.

Green's [1996] interviews with nine nursing students revealed that they were able to define experiential learning, considered role playing a chief method, were aware of theory-practice issues, understood the importance of reflective practice, and viewed clinical supervision as an integral part of experiential learning.

Green [1995] observed and interviewed a nurse educator, determining that she had a clear understanding of experiential learning and used that knowledge in the classroom. The phenomenological method used in the study involved questions derived from knowledge and experience that were designed to elicit personal thoughts, knowledge, and perceptions in an unstructured way.

CASE STUDIES, LAPTOP COMPUTERS, AND TEACHING

Shears [1995] edited a book entitled Computers and Schools, which recounts what happened when a set of 25 laptops was introduced into each of 10 Australian schools ranging from elementary schools to high schools to colleges. They were schools with very different environments and experiences in computing education. In their own words, 10 teachers tell what happened in their schools and how they evaluated the impact of these laptops on students and teachers. A large part of the report deals with their case studies -- the experiments and surveys they conducted, and the responses, attitudes, and concerns of parents and staff members.

Gardner, Morrison, Jarman, Reilly, and McNally [1994] wrote a book, Personal Portable Computers and the Curriculum, which considers a variety of issues relating to the use of portable access to information technology (PLAIT) in Northern Ireland. The PLAIT project introduced 235 portable computers in nine schools for use in English, science, and mathematics courses. The general conclusions of the study were that the portable computers resulted in high levels of student motivation, harmonious and purposeful learning environments, and greatly accelerated information technology literacy among the students and teachers alike.

Rowe, Brown, and Lesman [1993] wrote a book, Learning with Personal Computers: Issues, Observations and Perspectives. This book provides a theoretical framework for learning and teaching with computers. It chronicles the results of an empirical study of 115 sixth and seventh grade students with their own laptops. Findings of the study include characteristics of learning with laptops, individual differences in attitudes and learning, and gender differences.

Anderson-Inman, Knox-Quinn, and Horney [1996] reported on computer-based study strategies for students with learning disabilities. Thirty secondary students with learning disabilities were given laptops and taught computer-based study strategies to test the efficacy of using technology to support students with learning disabilities. Results showed that students with high intelligence and reading test scores were more willing to adopt computer-based study strategies.

Price [1994] evaluated the effectiveness of the use of individual portable computers by seven students (from elementary through college age) having severe specific learning difficulties or dyslexia. The study found that students improved substantially in their note-taking skills, attitudes towards work, attitudes toward spelling, writing skills, and keyboarding skills. Other changes included increased independence in learning style.

Riegler [1992] described ways in which laptop computers were used in two high school Advanced Placement History classes. He discusses note-taking on laptops, small group assignments via modem, cooperative-learning groups, and laptops as research tools.

METHODOLOGY

Stanage [1987, p. 45] claimed that "A phenomenological approach to adult education opens up new directions for research and uncovers new layers of clarity in perceptions, conceptions, action, and practices." Spiegelberg's [1982, pp. 682-715] "Seven Essential Steps" of phenomenology listed below served as a guide in this investigation:

1. Investigating particular phenomena;
2. Investigating general essences (eidetic intuiting);
3. Apprehending essential relationships among essences;
4. Watching modes of appearing;
5. Exploring the constitution of phenomena in consciousness;
6. Suspending belief in the existence of the phenomena;
7. Interpreting the meaning of the phenomena.

In order to show how phenomenology has been used in this study, a direct investigation and description of phenomena of teaching with laptops has been offered. This investigation has been undertaken without theories about the causal explanation (of these phenomena) and has been kept as free as possible from unexamined preconceptions and presuppositions. Carefully gathered examples from my direct teaching experiences have been submitted to a free imaginative variation. An intentional analysis of the concrete experiences of teaching with laptops has been offered. A description of how these particular experiences have constructed also has been provided. The relevant ingredients of teaching with laptops have been examined.

A PHENOMENOLOGICAL DESCRIPTION OF THE CASE

INVESTIGATING A PARTICULAR PHENOMENON OF TEACHING WITH LAPTOPS

This case study focused on a particular teaching medium, namely a laptop computer, and one trainer's experiences and reflections on using that medium. The case was described in the first person. I (Xue-Ming Bao) looked, listened and was sensitive to the finer shades of the phenomena. I provided intentional analysis and general examination of adjacent phenomena. I described the outward manifestation of the phenomena.

I started my new job as an assistant professor and librarian at Walsh Library, Seton Hall University on September 2, 1997. One of the tasks given to me was to provide library technology training to faculty members and students. A laptop computer was loaned to me for teaching purpose. Between September and December 1997, my colleague Dr. Zi-Yu Lin and I jointly taught two different courses: 1) Key topics in Windows 95 (12 40-minute sessions); and 2) Key topics in Microsoft PowerPoint (10 1-hour sessions). Ten Walsh library faculty members were our audience for Windows 95 and PowerPoint training sessions. In addition, I taught three courses by myself. These courses included: 1) A 3-hour introductory Internet course to a group of one freshman, one English professor and one secretary on September 27, 1997; 2) A 2-hour introductory course on Internet Home Page Design to eight faculty and staff members on November 11 and 3) A 1?-hour introductory course on PowerPoint to 16 faculty and staff members on November 14, 1997. The five courses were on computer-related subjects. A laptop computer was used to demonstrate the contents of the courses.

I started my first class of Windows 95 training series on the second week of my new job. Even though I had used Windows 95 for two years, this was my first time teaching Windows 95 systematically. It was also my first time using a laptop. I could feel that the manipulation of the mouse on the laptop computer was a little different from that on a desktop computer. It was not as easy to use as a desktop computer's mouse.

The laptop computer's LCD screen did not appeal to my eyes as does that of a desktop computer. It was hard to see words and graphics on the laptop computer screen. However, the laptop computer was Pentium in speed and was as powerful as my desktop computer. The most distinctive advantage of a laptop was that I could comfortably carry it to the meeting room where I was to make my teaching presentation.

Two rooms were available for us to make presentations. One was big enough for 20 people while the other was small with only a 10 people capacity. Dr. Lin and I selected the small room because only five or six librarians were expected. There was a long table (10' L x 4' W) with eight comfortable chairs on two sides. An LCD projector was on a wheel-stand on the one end of the table. A big white screen (4'7" H x 4'9" W) was on the other end of the long table. The distance (13'4") was the right distance for projecting my laptop screen on to the big screen. People sitting on the chairs closest to the screen (4' away) on both sides of the table felt the screen was too close. People sitting from the second to the fourth rows of the chairs on both sides of the table were at the perfect distance (between 7' and 11' away) to view the screen. I felt it was important for me to come to the classroom 30 minutes earlier than the scheduled class time to set up my laptop connection to the projector. I wanted to make sure that I could project the teaching contents from my laptop to the big screen because it could affect whether or not I would be able to conduct the session. I had one incident that the projector could not project anything from my laptop. After 10 minutes of checking into all the possible causes, the media center technician found out that she was using a wrong size cable to connect my laptop to the projector.

The room light had to be turned off when the computer projector was on. Otherwise the room would be too bright for people to see anything on the big screen. It would be better for the room to have an adjustable light switch so that the light could be dimmed rather than be totally turned off. Fortunately the room had a window with adjustable blind shades. This was not as ideal, however, as having the adjustable lighting and as a result, people could not read my handouts comfortably.

Each Windows 95 training session lasted 40 minutes. The teaching process was like a "show and tell" process. The participants could see how I moved the mouse and where I pointed. I had two groups of people: 1) People who came to the training sessions with their own laptops and 2) people who came without laptops. A problem came up. When I was showing and telling, people with laptops were busy working on their laptops. They were listening to me but they were not watching the big screen. They missed the showing component of my presentation. They could not follow my verbal presentation to do the same steps on their own laptops. They complained that I was speaking too fast. The ideal situation would have been that they listened and watched my presentation first and then I would go over the steps with them again. But what about the people who did not come with laptops? Would they feel that the repetition was wasting their time? I was accommodating those participants who did not bring laptops to the class.

In planning our second training series for key topics in Microsoft PowerPoint, Dr. Lin and I decided that participants should bring their own laptops to each session, since all of them possessed laptops with Microsoft PowerPoint installed. We noted in our announcement that bringing the laptop computer to the class was required.

In teaching the PowerPoint, I did "show and tell" and also had the participants do exercises in each session. Five library faculty members came to my Tuesday sessions. The exercises were a PowerPoint presentation that I used for a 3-hour session of an introduction to the Internet. The idea was that library faculty members needed to teach Internet skills to students. These exercises would not only be a good way for them to learn PowerPoint but also a useful PowerPoint program that they could use to teach the Internet to their students.

In the first 1-hour PowerPoint session, we spent 30 minutes defining PowerPoint and what it could do. I then demonstrated the basic features of PowerPoint: 1) Auto-Wizard, 2) Template and 3) Blank Presentation. I asked the participants to do two exercises. One was to access the above three basic features while the other was to create a title slide by using the Auto-Wizard feature. All the participants brought their laptops to the session. We did exercises together. I was moving around to give each of them individual help when necessary. However, one problem surfaced: the five library faculty members had different skill levels in using their laptops. When one participant had already finished the creation of the title slide, another participant had not even gotten into the PowerPoint program. This participant needed a lot of extra attention.

In the second PowerPoint session after I demonstrated a few new teaching points of the PowerPoint program, I asked the participants to create six PowerPoint slides. They could only do two slides. I found that there was a discrepancy between what I would expect the participants to do and what the participants could actually do. I realized that the exercises should not be rushed. The pace of the exercises should be slow and relaxing.

In the third session, the participants created three slides. This was an indication that they had become more familiar with the PowerPoint program. During this session, however, I found that the participants had a common problem in that they did not know what to do when they lost their text bullet points of the slide. A PowerPoint slide template has two parts. One is a title part and the other is a text part. If a text part is deleted, the bullet points would be gone. I explained a couple of ways to get the text bullet points back individually. I should have spent time explaining this possible problem in the group session. This could have saved their time as well as mine.

The participants told me that doing the exercises in the class was a lot more demanding than just listening to a presentation. They felt that they learned more things in this way than just listening to a presentation. Another teaching experience made me realize how crucial the hands-on exercises are. I was asked to teach PowerPoint to a group of 16 faculty and staff members on November 14, 1997. I had only 1? hours for the session. The participants had no prior knowledge of PowerPoint. The training took place in a computer lab with more than 20 computers that have access to PowerPoint 97. I prepared my lesson to include a 30-minute presentation and a 1-hour hands-on exercise session. I demonstrated major features of PowerPoint 97 in the first 30 minutes. We then did exercises together for about one hour. The course evaluations showed that the students wished that they had had more time for hands-on exercises in this session. Some of them told me that five minutes introduction would be sufficient and that the rest of the time should be devoted to hands-on exercises. I think one of the reasons that some of them did not feel that my presentation helpful was that they could not see the screen well in the back rows of the computer lab. The participants in the 1st and 2nd rows of the lab had positive reactions towards my presentation. In a teaching environment where I have a big computer lab, I should have just shown an exercise on the screen and had the participants do it simultaneously. If I have more than five trainees in one session to do hands-on exercises, I need to have lab assistants to help me offer individual help to some trainees. Helping trainees who have different levels of computer skills in one hands-on exercise session is a big challenge to the trainer.

I taught a 3-hour introductory Internet course to a group of three participants in a computer lab. The lab had about 20 networked computers accessible to the Internet. I connected my laptop to a computer screen projector and a network jack. I put all my presentation key points on a PowerPoint program. I made live links from my presentation screen to the Internet. This feature of PowerPoint was very helpful. Apparently the computers in the lab were not maintained well. Some computers were not working and other computers were very slow to access to certain sites on the Internet. The participants had to hop from one computer to another. In their written feedback, they wrote that the session was informative and helpful but I needed to make sure that computers were working properly.

INVESTIGATING GENERAL ESSENCES (EIDETIC INTUITING)

The guiding question for this step of investigation is "What are essential elements or particulars in teaching with a laptop?" In the process of my eidetic intuiting, fourteen essential elements have emerged. They include: 1) Laptop computer(s) for the trainer or for both trainer and trainees, 2) A computer screen projector, 3) A projection screen, 4) Methods of training (e.g. "show and tell" and hands-on exercises), 5) Trainer and trainees, 6) Training subject matter, 7) Duration of a training session, 8) Types of training (e.g. a multi-sessions series or one session only), 9) Training room size, 10) Furniture arrangement, 11) Lighting, 12) Acoustics, 13) Technical support, and 14) Assessment tools.

APPREHENDING ESSENTIAL RELATIONSHIPS AMONG ESSENCES

The goal of this step is the determination of what relationships among essences are highly essential, relatively essential, and merely compatible to the existence of the phenomenon. In this study, "highly essential" is defined as being so crucial that the relationship will affect whether or not teaching with laptops can be conducted. "Relatively essential" is defined as being crucial and the relationship will affect the quality of teaching with laptops. "Merely compatible" is defined as being non-crucial and teaching with laptops can be conducted in either situation. The following essential relationships have emerged among the above essential elements:

The relationship between a laptop computer and a computer screen projector. (Highly essential)
The relationship between "show and tell" and hands-on exercises. (Relatively essential)
The relationship between teaching with laptops and subject matter taught. (Relatively essential)
The relationship between a trainer and trainees. (Relatively essential)
The relationship between teaching with laptops and the teaching environment. (Relatively essential)
The relationship between a multi-sessions training series and one-session only training. (Merely compatible)

WATCHING THE MODES OF APPEARING

The modes of these essential relationships appearing range from crucial to non-crucial. The relationship between a laptop and computer screen projector is highly essential because I would not be able to teach with my laptop if I did not have a computer screen projector available. Ideally a lab technician can help you set up and test the connection between your laptop and the projector.

The relationship between "show and tell" and hands-on exercises is relatively essential. Teaching with a laptop is basically a "show and tell" process. You show what you want trainees to see through a projector and you explain what is on the screen. You may even engage trainees in a discussion during your "show and tell." Hands-on exercises refer to a trainee's actual practice on a computer. It is used as an extension of "show and tell" for computer-related subject matter. "Show and tell" and hands-on exercises should be conducted simultaneously when teaching computer-related subject matter such as Windows 95 and PowerPoint 97 and home page design. The less talk, the more hands-on, the better. However, you may not be able to provide both "show and tell" and hands-on exercise in every training session because of the constraints of the availability of the computer equipment.

The relationship between teaching with laptops and subject matter taught is relatively essential. The computer-related subject matter is best taught by using a laptop because the contents can be demonstrated through the laptop itself. However, a laptop is not limited to teaching computer - related subject matter. The templates in the PowerPoint program, for example, show that a laptop can be used to present or teach business and many other subjects.

The relationship between a trainer and trainees is relatively essential. In order to have a successful training session, a trainer should prepare the session well and should try to find out the needs and interests of the trainees. The trainees should be willing to learn. When a trainee makes an effort to come to the training session, this is already a good indication of willingness to learn. It is then the trainer's responsibility to make the training session worthwhile. The biggest challenge for a trainer is to meet different needs and interests of a group of trainees who have different levels of knowledge background of the subject matter. The trainer should assess the teaching quality by getting verbal or written feedback from trainees on a regularly basis.

The relationship between teaching with laptops and the teaching environment is relatively essential. Teaching with a laptop requires a proper teaching environment. The room can not be too big because people will not be able to see clearly what is projected on the screen if they are sitting in the back of the room. Adjustable lighting is necessary for people to see both the screen and their handouts. Acoustic quality of the room is important for people to hear from you clearly.

The relationship between a multi-sessions training series and one-session only training is merely compatible. The duration of training on a subject depends on the needs and availability of trainees. In a multi-sessions training series, trainees will learn more details and have more hands-on exercises. In one-session training, trainees will be introduced to the subject matter and have less time for hands-on exercises.

EXPLORING THE CONSTITUTION OF TEACHING WITH LAPTOP IN CONSCIOUSNESS

The purpose of this step is the determination of typical process of teaching with laptops. What is the pattern of its development in my perception? Teaching with a laptop requires a computer screen projector. A laptop installed with a presentation software program such as a Microsoft PowerPoint program can be used as a powerful medium to teach an unlimited number of subjects. Depending on the objectives of each teaching session, teaching with a laptop is mainly a "show and tell" process. If the teaching involves a computer-related subject and if the trainees have access to laptops or desktops, hands-on exercises should be incorporated as a major component of the teaching session. Proper room size and availability of adjustable lighting will also have an impact on teaching with laptops.

SUSPENDING BELIEF IN THE EXISTENCE OF TEACHING WITH A LAPTOP

This step frees me from my usual preoccupations and beliefs. To suspend my belief of teaching with laptops in the existence is to ask myself why I need or want to teach with a laptop. Could I teach the five computer subject-related courses between September and December 1997 without using a laptop? The answer is no. I have to use a computer and projector to show the contents on a big screen in order to demonstrate and to have the participants follow me with their hands-on exercises. Otherwise, my teaching on these subjects would have being much less effective.

INTERPRETING THE MEANING OF TEACHING WITH A LAPTOP

This step goes beyond what is directly given. The guiding questions for this step are "What are the strengths or advantages of teaching with laptops? What are the weaknesses or disadvantages of teaching with laptops?"

A laptop installed with a PowerPoint program is a great presentation tool in teaching a group of people about an unlimited number of subjects. A laptop without a presentation program would be limited to teaching only computer-related subjects. I used my laptop to teach Windows 95 to a group without having to use the PowerPoint program.

What are the limitations of teaching with laptops? A laptop has to be used with a computer screen projector in order to make it an effective teaching medium for a group. A good quality computer screen projector is expensive and is not readily available in many learning environments.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A review of the literature shows that laptops are being used as a learning tool from the perspective of how learners use laptops rather than how a trainer uses a laptop as a teaching presentation medium. This research project is the first phenomenological case study on teaching with a laptop from a trainer's perspective, and thus offers new implications on how to use this medium effectively. Fourteen essential elements of teaching laptops have emerged in this study concerning the equipment, method of teaching, subject matter, people, teaching environment, and timing. The relationships among those essential elements range from highly essential to relatively essential to merely compatible. Based on the findings of this study, I would make the following recommendations when teaching with a laptop:

1. Go to your training room or lab at least 30 minutes before the start of a training session to make sure that your laptop will connect properly to the projector.
2. Choose a small room in which people can clearly see screen projection.
3. Choose a room with adjustable lighting so that people can see both the big screen and their handouts.
4. Incorporate hands-on exercises as a major part of your teaching plan if trainees have access to the same software programs on their laptops and desktops.

5. Recruit no more than five trainees for one hands-on training session because some trainees will need your individual help.
6. Request lab assistants to help you offer individual help to some trainees if you have a large group of trainees for a hands-on training session.
7. Install a presentation software program such as a Microsoft PowerPoint program to extend the teaching capability of your laptop to non-computer-related subject matter.
8. Narrate your "show and tell" demonstration clearly by speaking out the name of an icon or object on the screen, for example, say "File pull-down menu" rather than say "this" or "that" when pointing to that icon.

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AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE PERCEIVED VALUE OF CASE STUDY WORK COMPARED WITH OTHER EXPERIENTIAL WORK

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Abstract

Authors of the Porter-McKibbin report and many other writers encourage the integration of experiential work into business curricula. Examples of such skills are creative decision-making, team-work, written and oral communications and influencing. This paper describes an effort in this direction conducted in six sections of the introductory graduate marketing course. A survey taken at the end of the semester (total number of respondents = 115) shows the perceived value of five kinds of experiential work. Case study work was not the highest rated. Suggestions are offered for increasing the perceived value of case study work.

INTRODUCTION

Since the publication of the Porter-McKibbin [1988] report, educators have been encouraged to integrate skill development into business school courses. Recent examples in the Marketing discipline are articles by Brown [1993], Shipp [1993], Cunningham [1995], Lamb [1995] and Peterson [1996]. Skills recommended in the literature include: creative decision-making, team-work, written and oral communications and influencing. In addition to these skills, graduate business students at "General University" (school to be identified in the final version of this paper) have expressed a strong interest in learning how to "make connections."

This paper describes the experiential work that students performed in six sections of the introductory graduate marketing course at "General." At the end of each course, questionnaires were distributed and students were asked to circle numbers from 1 to 7 to express their opinions regarding the value of each course component and of the final exam and of the entire course. See Exhibit 1.

The experiential work included: case study work, group-discussion of text questions, résumé preparation and evaluation, influencing and negotiation exercises and the networking experience. All are described below after a brief discussion of the basic concept of the course.

THE MANAGERIAL MARKETING COURSE AT PACE UNIVERSITY

BASIC CONCEPT

Pace University's MBA program enrolls 2500 students, 40% full-time and 60% part-time. Surveys of graduating MBA students disclosed dissatisfaction with the lack of skill-developing experiential work in the MBA program. Accordingly, course materials were prepared to help students develop skills while they learned subject matter. These materials were used in several sections of the core Managerial Marketing course.

EXHIBIT 1. COURSE EVALUATION FORM

For each question shown below, please circle the number that reflects your opinion.
How valuable were . . . ? (1 = Not at all valuable, 7 = Extremely valuable)

The case study written assignments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*1*
The case study discussions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*2*
The text question small group discussions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*3*
Giving presentations on the text questions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*4*
Hearing presentations on the text questions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*5*
Preparing the one page résumé	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*6*
Seeing the other students' résumés	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*7*
The Influencing exercise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*8*
The Negotiation exercise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*9*
The Networking experience, itself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*10*
Writing the Networking report	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*11*
Presenting the Networking report	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*12*
Hearing the Networking reports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*13*
The Final exam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*14*
The entire Marketing course	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*15*

Thank you very much for your participation in this survey.

Class size ranges between 15 and 25 students. The class meets once a week for 14 weeks, for 2.5 hours each time. The instructor set objectives, gave students written and verbal guidance and directed them to act on their own, in class and in the outside world and then to report on their experiences, in writing and orally.

CASE STUDY WORK

The Kotler & Armstrong [1994b] text was used. The cases assigned included *MasterCard*, *Quaker Oats*, *Smith's Foods*, *Steel Products*, *New Balance* and *Nestlé*. These cases were selected because they provide an interesting and useful spectrum of marketing situations.

The benefit of analyzing and discussing cases is that it helps students to obtain an understanding of what is involved in managing a marketing activity and awareness of some of the traps that await the unwary. They also learn how to apply a creative, yet systematic approach to analyzing cases and to making decisions in the outside world.

Students were required to prepare a written brief analysis of one case chosen from the six assigned cases and a full analysis of one other case, also chosen from that list. Case write-ups were due on or before the date when they were discussed in class. Each case was discussed for half of one class meeting, approximately 1.25 hours. The method used for analyzing and discussing the cases is summarized below:

1. List and arrange hierarchically, as suggested by Kotler [1994a], the objectives of the company in order to identify the Top Rank Objective (TRO).
2. Discover the Strengths, Weaknesses, Auspicious Conditions and Threats (SWATs) of the company with respect to the TRO. SWATs are defined as follows:
   Strengths = attributes of the company helpful to achieving the TRO.
   Weaknesses = attributes of the company harmful to achieving the TRO.
   Auspicious Conditions = outside conditions helpful to achieving the TRO.
   Threats = outside conditions harmful to achieving the TRO.
3. Decide whether the TRO is attainable, in view of the SWATs. If it is, continue. If it is not, select a different TRO and repeat the SWATs discovery, and *then* continue.
4. Create at least 10 possible strategies based on the SWATs, by answering these questions many times: "How can the company: Use its Strengths? Stop its Weaknesses? Exploit its Auspicious Conditions? Defend against its Threats?"
5. Develop action programs for implementing the most attractive strategies, covering: benefits to the company from this program, actions required, person(s) responsible, location(s), resources required, control system and contingency plans.
6. Evaluate the action programs and select for implementation the programs that appear to be the most effective in achieving the Top Rank Objective.

QUESTIONS & ANSWERS

The second half of six class meetings was dedicated to the Question and Answer activity, which helps students to learn Marketing concepts and to develop team-work and presentation skills.

The instructor prepared a list of questions of a thought-provoking, action-directed nature. The questions were selected from the end-of-chapter questions presented in the text book.

In class, students were assigned to groups of four or five persons. The instructor assigned one question to each group. Groups were allowed about 15 minutes to develop answers to their questions and to arrange their presentation roles. They were permitted to refer to the text and to any other materials.

The instructor took a seat at the side of the room and called on groups to present their questions and answers. Other members of the class were encouraged to comment after each team's presentation. The instructor participated by helping students when they seemed to require help and by emphasizing particularly important points. This process was repeated at five additional class meetings. To maximize students' ability to work with different people, the instructor brought randomized lists of students' names and assigned teams according to these lists. (Spreadsheet programs can be used to randomize lists of names.)

Beneficial outcomes were:

a) Students learned to work effectively (as members of a team under time pressure) toward achieving important goals, such as giving good presentations and maximizing their "class contribution" score. Students also learned to work with people of diverse backgrounds.
b) Students rapidly increased their presentation skills. An improvement in the quality of these presentations was easily visible by the fourth Q&A session.
c) Students increased their understanding and retention of text material and the instructor received frequent feedback on this.

RÉSUMÉ WORK

For this experiential work, each student brought in enough copies of his (her) résumé for everybody in the class. Stacks of résumés were placed on tables and chairs at the front of the room and the students and instructor did a "walk-by" to pick up full sets of résumés.

Following this, students were asked to do a quick review of their sets of résumés and to select the top three on the basis of inviting appearance and to write down the names of their authors and to turn in these ballots to the instructor. The instructor tabulated these ballots and reported back to the class with the top three winners. Students could then examine proven examples of attractive résumés. This was a simple exercise that illustrated effectively how important appearance is in written communications, such as résumés.

NETWORKING EXPERIENCE

The Networking experience was developed in response to students' desire to increase their ability to "make connections." This experience was an ideal component of a marketing course because it enabled students to practice marketing in the real world including: exploratory research, public relations, personal selling and direct mail marketing.

At the third class meeting, students brought in and presented their progress reports on the "Networking Experience." For purposes of this assignment, "Networking" was defined as exchanging information informally and establishing personal connections. Students network mainly by conversing one-on-one in many different settings: on the telephone, in hallways, in company lunchrooms, at professional conferences, trade shows, classrooms, lounges, elevators, airplanes, trains and hotel lobbies. Some networking is planned and some just happens.

The instructor prepared students for the networking experience by giving them a presentation at the first meeting, directing their attention to a detailed discussion in the workbook, answering their questions and outlining the two written assignments: progress report and final report. For the progress report, students were required to bring in a 2 to 3 page paper covering these topics:

1. Student's objectives and SWATs (Strengths, Weaknesses, Auspicious Conditions and Threats) with respect to these objectives.
2. Evaluations of the objectives and SWATs by friends and relatives.
3. Plan for the remainder of the networking experience, including a timetable.

In planning their Networking Experience, students chose from the many options discussed in their skills workbook. Several activities that students found useful are described below.

Interviewing Alumni

Alumni of the school were valuable networking contacts, especially alumni who work in fields that interest the individual student and who have achieved significant career success. Some topics that students covered were:

A. Their job title, description of a typical day (activities and percent time in each), reports to ______, flexibility in work, best and worst parts of the job.
B. Advancement path: How did they get to their present position? What was the next step?
C. What experience and education were appropriate for their job?
D. Recommendations to the student: whom to see for information and/or opportunities?

Conducting "Information Interviews"

Another information source and contact-building possibility was the "Information Interview." The student was advised to select companies that offer interesting opportunities and to attempt to schedule information interviews. The objective would be to interview people employed in higher level positions that the student might aspire to occupy in the future. The structure of the information interview would be similar to the outline presented above for the alumni interviews.

Participating in Professional Organizations

Students were advised to network to identify suitable organizations by asking friends, associates, bosses and teachers to suggest organizations that might provide networking opportunities.

Networking at meetings consists of circulating, meeting people and exchanging information about interests and activities and exchanging business cards. Usually, the networking period is followed by lunch where more networking may be possible.

Students were advised to review the experience after the meeting. Did they meet people who share their interests and goals, have information that is of value to them, had the power and money to offer them desirable jobs or consulting work?

If the answers were favorable, they were advised to join the organization and go to more meetings. If they continued to attend meetings, they would make friends in their professional field and learn about many opportunities.

Networking Within Their Own Company

Students were also advised to network discreetly within their own organization, if they were employed. For example, they might network with their own boss to discuss his (her) objectives and theirs. They would ask about their career prospects, as perceived by the boss and for suggestions about what they should to improve their chances for pay increments, promotions and career advancing transfers. Other recommended activities were to visit managers of other departments and to learn about the work they do and about current and future openings.

Students were also advised to arrange lunch meetings with people at their own level in other departments and ask them the same questions they ask of alumni of their school.

Other topics discussed in regard to networking included: starting an accomplishments file, sending a broadcast letter, optimal behavior at interviews, preparing and delivering presentations to professional groups and publishing articles.

Toward the end of the term, students wrote and presented in class the final report for the networking experience following this outline: objectives of the networking experience, what was done to achieve these objectives, what results were obtained, the three most important things learned from this experience, plans for future networking and suggestions for increasing the usefulness of the networking experience.

THE INFLUENCING AND NEGOTIATING EXERCISES

The influencing and negotiating exercises were in-class role-playing exercises. In each instance, the instructor provided a fifteen minute lecture covering the basic points. Role-playing scripts were then distributed and after students spent about ten to fifteen minutes planning their approach, they engaged their designated counter-parts in the experiential exercise. Another set of role playing scripts were then distributed and a second experiential exercise was performed.

Influencing

"Influencing" is changing another person's behavior without using force or authority. The basic model of influencing is this: "Accept my offer (grant my request, buy my product or service) because my offer will help you to achieve your objectives and/or solve your problems." The instructions to the "influencing" students covered the following points:

1. Determine what you want.
2. To the best of your ability, define needs of your "client," the other participant.
3. Devise an offer, that if accepted, will help you achieve your goals and will help your client to satisfy his or her needs.
4. Present your offer and ask the client to accept it.
5. If the client declines, ask why.
6. If there was a misunderstanding, clarify your offer and ask the client to accept it.
7. If the client has needs that differ from those you assumed, reformulate your offer if possible and repeat steps 4, 5 and 6.
8. If the client still declines, appeal to emotions and ask the client to accept the offer.
9. If that does not work, say "Thank you," and leave.

Role-playing scripts were distributed and the exercise proceeded. After students completed the exercises, outcomes were discussed and students were asked to consider what they and their counterparts might have done differently to achieve more favorable results.

Negotiating

"Negotiating" is an attempt to reach a compromise when two parties share an important objective and have conflicts about other matters. The basic model of negotiating is this: "Let us see if we can resolve our differences because we both gain more than we lose by doing that." The instructions to the "negotiating" exercise cover the following points:

1. Determine what you want.
2. To the best of your ability, define the objectives of the other negotiator.
3. If you share an important objective, continue.
4. Determine what you are willing to give up that the other side might want. These are your "bargaining chips."
5. Determine what you want that is relatively inexpensive to the other side. These are your "non-negotiable demands."
6. Determine your BATNA (best alternative to negotiated agreement). If you can live with it, be tough. If you prefer not to, be flexible.
7. At the negotiating meeting, start by stating the shared objective. Then wait for the other side to make its first offer.
8. Make the other side earn your concessions.
9. Take a break if things are not going well for you.
10. If you don't know what to say, say nothing. You can't give anything away when your mouth is closed.

Scripts were distributed and the exercise proceeded. After students completed the exercises, outcomes were discussed and students were asked to consider what they and their counterparts might have done differently to achieve more favorable results.

THE FINAL EXAM

The final exam consisted of essay questions similar to those discussed in class during the question and answer sessions. Students were allowed two hours to answer any five questions from a list of six.

EMPIRICAL EVALUATION

At end of the semester, after the last networking experience presentation, the questionnaire shown in Exhibit 1 was distributed. The total number of respondents for the six sections of the course was 115. The results are presented in Exhibit 2 and summarized below.

On a scale of 1 to 7, with 1=Not at all valuable and 7=Extremely valuable, components of the course were evaluated as follows:

The entire Marketing course	5.76
The Networking experience	5.76
The résumé work	5.50
Influencing & Negotiating	5.26
The case study work	5.21
The Q & A work	5.04
The Final exam	4.12

CONCLUSIONS

The networking and résumé work were rated significantly higher than the case study work. Amount of effort required could not be an explanation. The probable explanation is that both networking and résumé work were career related, whereas with the case study work, the relationship to career success may not have been as clear.

It may be worth while to include some career related cases in this course. Alternately, by bringing guest participants into the case discussion, it might be possible to communicate to students that case study analysis skills are indeed important for career advancement.

EXHIBIT 2. COURSE EVALUATION REPORT INCLUDING AVERAGES

How valuable were . . . ? (1 = Not at all valuable, 7 = Extremely valuable)

The case study written assignments	5.30
The case study discussions	5.11
Average for case study work	**5.21**
The text question small group discussions	4.90
Giving presentations on the text questions	5.42
Hearing presentations on the text questions	4.80
Average for Q & A work	**5.04**
Preparing the one page résumé	5.26
Seeing the other students' résumés	5.74
Average for résumé work	**5.50**
The Influencing exercise	5.20
The Negotiation exercise	5.32
Average for Influencing & Negotiating	**5.26**
The Networking experience, itself	6.09
Writing the Networking report	5.52
Presenting the Networking report	5.93
Hearing the Networking reports	5.50
Average for Networking experience	**5.76**
The Final exam	**4.12**
The entire Marketing course	**5.76**

Notes regarding the Averages shown above:

Standard deviations ranged between 1.20 and 1.56. With a sample size of 115, the standard errors of the mean ranged between 0.11 and 0.15.

A difference of 0.3 has a 5% chance of being due to sampling error.

A difference of 0.5 has less than 1% chance of being due to sampling error.

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PERCEPTIONS OF CHINESE STUDENTS IN AN ENGLISH-MEDIUM CASE-BASED MANAGEMENT COURSE

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Abstract

This paper reports on one aspect of a three-year ethnographic investigation of the use of cases in the Faculty of Business Administration at The Chinese University of Hong Kong. Data about case-based learning in an English-medium undergraduate management course were collected through questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, non-participant observation, videotaping, program document analysis, and field notes. The analysis of the data reported here focuses on the students' perceptions (the value of cases in assisting their learning, self-ratings of participation/language level, language preference, expectations about the roles of professors/students in case discussions) and their suggestions for ways to improve case discussions.

INTRODUCTION

Student perceptions influence the interest and effort the students put into a subject and affect their attitudes toward the discipline. Therefore, they merit serious consideration and in a context such as Hong Kong where international faculty are working with classes composed primarily of Chinese first-language students, it is imperative that efforts be made to help the professors better understand their audience and the learning/teaching situation. This study is an attempt by an ESP (English for Specific Purposes) specialist to improve the use of cases in business administration courses involving a large number of Chinese students.

The study follows an ethnographic approach in order to gain a more in-depth look at the use of cases in this context. Drawing on both quantitative and qualitative data, it focuses on a strategic management course taught to Chinese undergraduates by an American business professor, a native speaker of English. By shedding light on the assumptions and attitudes of students and their professor, the researcher is attempting to provide the basis for developing more relevant and meaningful learning experiences for Chinese students in English-medium case-based courses. Ethnographic research, such as this, can play a significant role in revealing the cultural dimension of second language case-based learning, an area which has been largely neglected, both in terms of research and pedagogy, but which is essential for both professors and students who find themselves in this often frustrating and sometimes daunting situation [Watson-Gegeo, 1988].

The aims of this study are formulated through the following research questions:

1. How are cases presented and analyzed in this English-medium strategic management course?
2. What are the attitudes of students towards case-based learning?
3. What linguistic, cultural, and interactional difficulties are involved with using cases in this context?
4. What conditions enhance or detract from students' willingness to actively participate in case discussions in English?

5. What adjustments might be made in the strategic management course to better engage students in case discussions?

METHOD

SUBJECTS AND THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

The subjects participating in the study were native Cantonese-speaking business administration students at The Chinese University of Hong Kong enrolled in *Management 4010: Business Policy and Strategy*, a required management course for all business administration majors. This integrated course is concerned with the formulation, implementation, and evaluation of business strategies. By bringing together a number of business disciplines and functions, the course is intended to help students better understand how to build and maintain a consistent and effective policy framework for a business enterprise. Students must have successfully completed, a first-year course in management, *Introduction to Business*, before they can enter this course.

RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS/PROCEDURES

Throughout the 1997 spring semester, data collection about the case-based learning experience in the *Business Policy and Strategy* course consisted of:

- "Learning through business cases," a comprehensive 91-item questionnaire with a six-point Likert scale for closed questions as well as four open-ended questions; this instrument was partially adapted from questionnaires used by Anderson and Lawton [1993] and Miles, Biggs, and Schubert [1986];
- semi-structured interviews in Cantonese with five students in the course (2 males and 3 females, representing a range of behavior in the case discussions);
- semi-structured interviews with the professor before and after this course;
- non-participant observation of case discussions;
- field notes arising from less formal discussion with and observation of the students and professor;
- video-recordings and transcriptions of eight case discussions (two cameras were used so that one camera focused on the professor and one focused on the students to capture as much of the interaction as possible);
- other artifacts of the case-learning situations, such as seating chart, textbook, handouts, and course syllabus.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

PROFILE OF SUBJECTS AND THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

In the class under investigation, there were 37 students enrolled. Twenty-nine of them agreed to participate in the survey, including 17 females and 12 males. Nineteen were third-year students; the rest (10) were in their fourth or fifth year of studies. The age of the students ranged from 21 to 23, with an average age of 21.4. Twenty-two of the students were registered in the Professional Accountancy (PAC) Program, while the remainder (7) were in the Bachelor of Business Administration (BBA) Program. Their concentrations included a wide range: Accountancy (21), Marketing (3), Finance (2), International business (1) and Decision Sciences and Managerial Economics (1). All of the participants were engaged in full-time studies. Only one of the students had studied outside Hong Kong; this individual spent a year in Japan as an exchange student. Before taking this case-based course, the students indicated, by way of the questionnaire, that they had analyzed business cases in an average of 4.5 courses. During the semester of this study, on average, they were studying cases in 1.2 courses, including the B*usiness Policy and Strategy* course. Only 6 of the participants had previous practical experience in business and this primarily consisted of summer jobs as secretaries or entry-level assistants in local companies.

This fourteen-week course was studied in the second term of the 1996-7 academic year. Classes were held once a week in a three-hour morning time slot. The course was taught by an American professor in his thirties with previous experience in teaching cases in the United States (12 years) and Japan (1 year). This was his second semester teaching business courses at the Chinese University but his first time teaching the strategic management course in this context. In this section of MGT 4010, the professor used a very open teaching style, calling on students individually, often by name, to answer his questions. He was relaxed with his students, often smiling and making jokes with them; he worked very hard to encourage his students to participate in case discussions and clearly set this as one of the key goals of his course. In an interview before the course began, he commented that "half the challenge of teaching [business courses at the Chinese University] is to figure out how to get to, how to encourage people. That's been my biggest problem."

The cases used in this course were mostly American-based and were primarily drawn from the text *Strategic Management: Concepts and Cases* by Wright, Kroll and Parnell (1996). The evaluation scheme for the course consisted of tests (40%), a mid-term take-home case report (17%), short case write-ups as homework (15%), participation (12%), and a final group case report and presentation (16%). In the syllabus, the professor stated that participation in case discussions was a must. "To do well in class discussions, students should have read the case and any assigned readings before class. Please do not come to class unprepared. Treat each case or industry discussion as you would an important meeting."

By the second week of class, students were required to select a specific seat so that the professor could draw up a seating plan and refer to it the rest of the term. He also requested that students make up a name card and bring it to every class. The setting for the classes was a traditional classroom with students seated in rows of movable desks. Throughout all case discussions, the students remained in rows facing the professor who lead the case discussion in front of a large whiteboard.

In the first class meeting the students were introduced to case-based learning as the professor walked them through a case let, a brief case, that focused on the mission of their university. In this lesson he made it clear that he would call on students during his case discussions. Since this institution allows students to change to other courses in the first three weeks of class, students could decide to transfer to another section of this course if they were uncomfortable with this approach. In fact, students could chose from seven sections of this course; one of the sections was offered in Cantonese and the other ones were in English-- three by native speakers of English and three by Asian professors who speak English as an additional language. This is not unusual since the Chinese University is a bilingual institution with many courses offered in both English and Chinese.

For this section of 4010, students worked in small groups (six students per group) outside of class to prepare for the full-class case discussions. The students were asked to choose which group they wished to belong to and they remained in intact groups throughout the semester. In class, however, they did not sit together in groups and responded to questions as individuals. Ten cases were analyzed by the students in full-class case discussions during the semester; each session lasted approximately an hour and fifteen minutes. The professor used the board throughout the case discussions to outline key headings/points and help frame the discussion.

As well as completing lengthy questionnaires about the use of cases, five students were interviewed at length in their mother tongue, Cantonese, in order to gain more insight into their perceptions about this mode of learning. The names of the interviewees have been changed to protect their identities but their profiles have not been altered.

Profiles of Interviewees

Ping - a twenty-one year old, third-year female PAC student. She has only studied cases in one other course. She was born in Mainland China and speaks Cantonese as a first language. She worked for one month as an accounts clerk for a local company during the previous summer.

Kwan Yu - a twenty-one year old, fourth-year male PAC student. He has studied cases in three other courses. He was born in Hong Kong and speaks Cantonese. He had two months of work experience as an assistant in a local business.

Mei - a twenty-one year old, third-year female PAC student. Like Ping, she was born in Mainland China and speaks Cantonese as her first language. She has studied cases in 16 courses at CUHK, including 4010. She has worked as a secretary, a customer service officer, and an accounts clerk at local companies over the last three summers.

Fiona - a twenty-one year old, third-year female student. She was born in Hong Kong and speaks Cantonese as a first language. She has studied cases in three courses including MGT 4010. She has no work experience.

Kit - a twenty-one year old, male PAC student in his third year of studies. He was born in Hong Kong and, like his colleagues, he speaks Cantonese as a first language. He has studied cases in 7 courses at CUHK including 4010. He has no work experience.

STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF THE CASE-BASED LEARNING EXPERIENCE

Positive Aspects

On the questionnaire, using a scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 6 = strongly agree, the students responded quite positively to the following statements about the use of cases in their business courses at the Chinese University.

TABLE 1

Studying business cases has helped me to...	M	SD
• identify problems in business	4.39	1.10
• understand the complexity of business operations	4.25	0.93
• make decisions on the basis of incomplete information	4.00	1.02
• increase my ability to put my ideas and plans into action	4.00	1.15
• bring together learning from different areas of business	4.39	1.07
• deal with ambiguous or unclear situations in business	4.11	0.79
• think like a business person	4.11	1.37
Studying business cases...		
• is a valuable way to learn about business practices	4.64	1.13
• adds a lot of realism to classes	4.79	0.88
• is not as valuable as lectures	2.81	0.92
• is an enjoyable way to learn about business practices	4.57	0.84

N = 29

Overall, the students believe that analyzing business cases is a useful activity for them and is particularly helpful in "identifying problems in business" and in "bringing together learning from different areas of business." Interestingly, most disagreed or disagreed somewhat that studying business cases was less valuable than lectures. On the questionnaire, students were also asked to respond to the following open-ended question, "What do you like most about studying cases?" Eighteen (64.3%) of the respondents commented that it "allows the application of theories and concepts to solve problems." Seven (25%) other students noted that by studying cases "they learn material beyond the textbook so that it broadens horizons." Another six (21.4%) commented that case analysis "can help prepare for the real world of business." The common thread throughout all of their responses was the practical benefits of learning through cases.

In answer to the same question in interviews, responses were very similar: Kwan Yu stated, " I think it is very practical to study cases. Most of the time it is very difficult to understand the theories, but cases can help us to learn them." One of the female interviewees, Ping, echoed his views, noting: "I think case studies are more practical. They are not just talking about the theories of management. It is because if you only learn about the theories, you would not know how to apply them in real life. Case studies are more practical."

Negative Aspects

In the survey, students were invited to comment about what they disliked most about studying cases. Ten (35.7%) responded to this open-ended question by expressing their dissatisfaction with cases that are not based in Hong Kong. Six (21.4%) complained that it takes too much time to study cases and five

(17.9%) commented that "lack of background information puts constraints on analysis." This last comment likely relates to the first one since some noted that it took a lot of time to seek out background information about cases that focus on Western companies that they are unfamiliar with.

When the interviewees were asked to expand on their negative feelings about studying cases, they made the following observations: Kwan Yu, in particular, was very direct in his response. "In our class, I don't like the cases used since they are mostly from the USA. It is hard for us to understand because we are not familiar with the companies. For example, the case "Carnival" is about the cruise business in the States; it is very difficult for us to understand. I think if we use Hong Kong cases it will be much better." Ping, was also uncompromising and emphatic in her response, " I think if we are not familiar with the case, we can hardly discuss it. Only the professor can discuss it. It is useless." Mei shared the views of her classmates, Kwan Yu and Ping, declaring, "Studying cases is difficult in that we don't know much about the foreign companies so it is hard to collect information about the case. Also, if we don't know the background of the case, it is very difficult to prepare for it. For example, our professor gave us a case about the Skil Corporation. If you know nothing about the company, you may not be interested in it, and you need to collect more information to finish this case study."

Their classmates largely share the views of the interviewees; 24 of the 29 students (82.8%) indicated that they agree or strongly agree with the statement "I especially like to analyze cases that are based in Hong Kong." What is most troubling is that only 4 (13.8%) of the respondents felt confident or very confident in their ability to "understand the cultural background of Western-based cases.

In contrast with the interviewees who focused on the need for locally-based case material, Kit emphasized his negative feelings and frustration about the complexity and length of the cases that they are required to read: "I dislike the content of some cases. There is too much data in them, with long paragraphs. Therefore, it is difficult for us to analyze. For example, once our professor delivered a case to our class, with many pages of information. We found it very difficult to analyze those figures and pick out the irrelevant information."

The results of the interviews and questionnaires indicate that students have difficulty coping with cases that are based in an unfamiliar cultural context. They have a strong preference for Hong Kong based cases and are clearly not receptive toward other case material. Thus, professors who use foreign-based material, no matter what the quality, are already starting at a serious disadvantage.

LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION IN CASE-BASED LEARNING

By way of the survey instrument, students were asked to express their views about the language used for various aspects of case study analysis in their business courses. In this unique bilingual setting, students may enroll in courses that are entirely English-medium or a mixture of English readings and Cantonese or Putonguha (Mandarin) lectures/discussion.

TABLE 2

I especially like to...	M	SD
• discuss cases in English class	3.69	1.09
• discuss cases in Cantonese in class	4.15	1.01
• read case materials that are written in English	4.31	1.05
• read case materials that are written in Chinese	3.69	0.97
Studying business cases...		
• in Cantonese will better prepare me to work in business	4.08	0.89
• in English will better prepare me to work in business	4.25	0.89

N = 29

As Table 2 shows, students prefer to read case material in English rather than in their mother tongue. This may simply reflect the reality that most of their case material is presented to them in English even if the class is taught in Chinese. While the students expressed a preference for the use of Cantonese in case discussions, they also felt that English would better prepare them to work in business.

Self-ratings of Chinese and English Language Proficiency

Students were also asked to express their opinion about their ability to use their mother tongue, Cantonese, as well as English.

TABLE 3

Self-ratings of Chinese and English language skills on a 1-6 scale where 1 = not at all and 6 = like a native speaker	M	SD
• I speak Cantonese	5.96	0.19
• I understand spoken Cantonese	5.96	0.19
• I read Chinese	5.93	0.27
• I write Chinese	5.70	0.47
• I speak English	4.37	0.56
• I understand spoken English	4.48	0.70
• I read English	4.85	0.60
• I write Engllish	4.74	0.66

N = 29

As Table 3 indicates, students rated themselves very highly in their ability to speak and understand Cantonese and read and write Chinese. They were less confident in their English language abilities, especially their ability to speak English. This is also evident in their assessment of their confidence levels related to the use of English and their mother tongue for various tasks related to case study analysis as shown in Table 4, following the scale, 1 = strongly disagree and 6 = strongly agree.

TABLE 4

In my business courses, I feel confident in my ability to...	M	SD
• write up case reports in Chinese	4.04	1.12
• write up case reports in English	4.54	1.00
• present cases orally in Cantonese	4. 54	1.30
• present cases orally in English	4.19	0.74
• understand case material in English	4.57	1.03
• understand the cultural background on Western-based cases	3.50	1.00

N = 29

Students are confident in their ability to prepare and present case reports in either English or Chinese. Although, they feel comfortable in their ability to deal with case material that is in English, they have difficulty understanding Western-based cases because of the unfamiliar cultural context. In other words, based on their earlier responses, they would most prefer to read cases in English that focus on Hong Kong companies.

Language of Instruction in Full-class Case Discussions

Since the case discussion is at the heart of case-based learning, this phase was singled out for closer scrutiny to ascertain how students really feel about expressing their ideas in Cantonese or English. Using a scale of 1 = strongly disagree and 6 = strongly agree, students completed the following questionnaire items related to their language preference for case discussions. As Table 5 illustrates, students are much more reticent to express their ideas in English in both small group and full-class case discussions. As Table 4 indicates they are more comfortable giving oral case reports, probably because they can read from a prepared script. Participating in free-flowing, sometimes unpredictable discussions with limited time to reflect, is much more linguistically and intellectually challenging for students especially in a foreign language.

TABLE 5

In my business courses, I feel confident in my ability to....	M	SD
• discuss cases in Cantonese	3.69	1.09
• discuss cases in English	4.15	1.01
In my business courses, I am reluctant to...		
• express my ideas in Cantonese in small group discussions	2.43	1.20
• express my ideas in English in small group discussions	3.50	1.32
• express my ideas in Cantonese in full-class case discussions	2.70	1.20
• express my ideas in English in full-class case discussions	3.46	1.00

N = 29

English

When asked in an interview about the use of English in case discussions, Ping, one of the female students, made the following points: "I think it is more difficult for me to express my ideas in English than Cantonese, but only slightly. I don't worry because of the language, but because of my points. I'm not afraid of making mistakes in English because the professor is not concerned about your grammar or whether you speak fluent English. What concerns him are your points." In the open-ended section of the questionnaire, the following comments about the language issue were typical: "As my mother tongue is Cantonese, there may be some ideas that are difficult to express in English. I often don't know how to pronounce a lot of the terms in the case." "It is hard for us to express ideas without any distortion in meaning, so misunderstanding is sometimes likely." "You need to organize the point well before you express your ideas but sometimes it may be too late." The last comment highlights a concern expressed by several of the students that they feel pressured to make comments quickly when they really need more time to frame their ideas and find the exact words they need in English to convey their point of view.

Cantonese

In the interviews, students were asked how they felt about the use of Cantonese in case discussions and this drew mixed responses. Ping remarked, "I don't think there are differences between using Cantonese and English for case discussions." Kit emphasized the benefits of using their first language in discussions, stating that "maybe there would be faster responses if the discussion is carried out in Cantonese. Students can just speak out whatever comes to their mind. It would be easier for them to express their ideas. I think students would participate more if the discussion was in Cantonese." His classmate, Joyce, agreed, commenting that "maybe it is better for Hong Kong students to have the case discussions in Cantonese but in our class, because our professor is a foreigner I would prefer discussing in English. However, if the professor can speak Cantonese and conducts his classes in this language, this will encourage more students to express their own ideas because on average, Hong Kong students' English is not very fluent. It is easier for them to give ideas in Cantonese."

ROLES OF PARTICIPANTS IN CASE DISCUSSIONS

Perceived Roles of Professors

In response to the question, "What do you think are the responsibilities of your professor in full-class case discussions?," the interviewees primarily viewed the professor as a leader who should guide the discussion. In fact, the Chinese equivalent of this term was used by almost all of the students who were interviewed.

Kwan Yu gave the following description of the professor's role: "To act as a leader, initiate students to think and give us directions because the case may have many areas which we could discuss. It is not possible for us to discuss all of them in class so the professor should specify which aspects we should focus on." Fiona agreed with Kwan Yu, stating "I think he [the professor] should lead the discussion. He should raise some questions for us and require us to discuss it and to give opinions." Kit simply commented that "the professor should use questions to guide us through the case."

Ping acknowledged the difficult role of the professor, especially in this context: "The professor should act as a leader. It is because most of the time in a full-class, students seldom ask questions in the first place. So the professor must act as a leader and encourage students to speak up and direct the discussion. It is because cases may be confusing to students and the discussion may not focus on the case, so the professors should give direction for students in the discussion. However, the professors should not tell students the answers or else the case discussions would lose their meaning."

Ping's last comment is most interesting since she seems at ease with the open-ended nature of case discussions and recognizes their value. Her position is not shared by most of her classmates who, on the survey, indicated that they agreed with the statement, "I especially like to have the professor tell us the best solution to a case at the end of a case discussion." In fact, the mean for the question was 4.57 (SD = 1.26) following a scale of 1 = strongly disagree and 6 = strongly agree. For this reason, a similar comment by Mei was also a bit surprising. "His [the professor's] main responsibility is to help students, not to provide ideas. He's the one controlling the atmosphere in a case discussion. For example, if no student speaks up, the professor can mention one or two points to get the ball rolling and let the whole class continue where he left off. The professor is here to help." Both Mei and Ping seem to have a good grasp of the objectives of the case method in terms of the value of having different possible ways to resolve the dilemmas presented, rather than limiting themselves to one "correct" solution.

Perceived Roles of Students

Interviewee responses to the question, "What do you think are the responsibilities of students in full-class case discussions?" were rather perplexing. While all of the students felt that students should take an active role in discussions, they do not follow this in practice. In fact, they rarely speak out in class unless singled out by the professor and, in most cases, their responses are as brief as possible. It is very difficult for their professor to engage them in discussion.

Ping declared that it is the responsibility of students "to get involved in the discussion and to speak out. Maybe the answers they provide are not right but to speak out is very important." Fiona added that it is important for students "to participate in it [case discussions] actively. I think they should be well prepared before the case discussions, so that they could have an overall picture of the cases throughout the discussions."

Kit made the following pronouncement about the role of students: "Students should actively take part in expressing their ideas; they should speak out whenever they have an answer in mind. Students should also be well prepared for the discussions. In this way, they can express their ideas more quickly. I think students should contribute their ideas in case discussions in class because people may have different point of views. It is good for the case discussions if students share ideas with one another."

Kit's last comment on this topic is intriguing. Student-student exchanges were extremely rare during the full-class case discussions under study. Instead, the professor asked questions and usually had to single out a student to get a response. If students did not agree with a comment, they rarely indicated this in class. In the survey, 10 out of 28 students (35.7%) admitted that they were reluctant to disagree with classmates during the full-class case discussion. They were even more reluctant to disagree with their professor. In fact 18 (64.3%) of them admitted that they would not want to speak up in this situation. According to Kai-Cheng and Xiao-Yun [1995, 11-12], "the traditional value of 'saving face' discourages [Chinese] students to express their opinions and to confront or to debate with their classmates in order to avoid losing their own faces or getting others to lose their faces." Bond and Lee [1981, 291] have also noted that "in a public setting one may run the risk of being regarded an 'uncritical' or 'unobjective', in effect suffering a loss of one's own face in the act of protecting another's." Thus, while the American professor in the management course is hoping to be challenged in class, there are likely cultural constraints placed on his students that make it uncomfortable for them to openly question or criticize him and, perhaps, even their fellow students.

Students' Understanding of the Professors' Expectations

When the interviewees were asked if their professor had explained what is expected of them in case discussions, the responses were surprisingly similar and a bit unexpected. Kwan Yu stated, "I don't remember. I think he would expect us to actively participate in the discussions and that we need to prepare the case discussion beforehand, for he would ask us to read the cases at home." Fiona gave a similar response, "No. I don't think he has mentioned about that. He assumes that we should know about case studies after all these years of studies. Whenever he asks somebody to give him an answer, that student will do as required." Ping simply replied negatively to the question, disavowing any knowledge of requirements set by her professor.

While responding negatively as the others had done, Mei made it clear that she appreciated her professor's efforts to try and engage them in discussion. "Our professor has asked us to participate more in case discussions but he hasn't said what is expected of us. Basically, if we are willing to try and express our ideas, he does not mind if it is right or wrong. He is not very strict and encourages students to speak up."

Kit commented that "the professor does have some expectations for us, such as he would expect us to read over the case once before the class discussions. Sometimes, he would give us the questions beforehand so that we could prepare for it at home. If he gives us the questions just before the class starts, he will give us enough time to think over the questions."

Almost all of the students indicated that they had not been informed about what is expected of them in case discussions, even though it was stated in the course syllabus and referred to in the first meeting. Still, in most cases, they understood that they were expected to read the case before class, prepare for the analysis, and contribute to the discussion.

STUDENTS' PARTICIPATION IN CASE DISCUSSIONS

Perception of Their Participation in Case Discussions

Observations of case discussions revealed that it is rare for students to volunteer and if the professor wants a response to a question, he needs to single out a student or the class will remain silent and unresponsive. The interviewees were asked a series of questions about their participation in their MGT 4010 class. "During the full-class case discussion, do you like to share your ideas with the rest of the class? How often do you volunteer? If your professor asks a question to the class and you have a response will you speak up? Why or why not?" Kwan Yu, a male PAC student who was often singled out for questions by his professor, stated that "quite often I like to share my ideas with the whole class but I'm afraid I will dominate the case discussion. It is our responsibility to participate in discussions. We can exchange ideas in this way. I don't think it is good for the whole class to remain silent."

Ping's viewpoint was rather surprising since the professor would usually put a question to the class as a whole before singling out students. She would prefer to be called on by name and places the full responsibility of her participation on the professor. "I seldom speak out in class. I don't know if I like to share my ideas with others because most of the time in case discussions the professor dominates the discussion and gives a lot of ideas so I seldom have the chance to voice my opinion. However, my professor does encourage a few of my classmates to give their ideas."

Kit, another student who was usually reticent in class, gave the following reason for his behavior. "If my ideas have not been mentioned before, I would speak up. Otherwise, I wouldn't. I cannot say I often volunteer, but I'm not wholly passive." It is interesting that while Kit did not volunteer to answer questions in class and was usually silent, he did not see himself as "wholly passive;" indeed, students that are actively listening and trying to follow the "discussion" may not view themselves as passive, even though they may certainly appear this way to their professor who is working hard to engage them verbally.

Length of Responses

Observations of the case discussions revealed that not only did students rarely volunteer a response, but when they were singled out they also said as few words as possible. This made it very challenging for the professor to keep the discussion going. In fact, he often needed to follow up with a series of probing questions to try to get the students to expand on their positions. The words did not flow easily making the discussion rather halting. When asked "Do you usually have a lot to say or are you as brief as possible?," all of the interviewees responded that they prefer to say as few words as possible but their reasons for this preference differed somewhat.

Kwan Yu expressed concern about his weak language ability in English and also emphasized the value of directness in speech rather than talking at length. "I would like to be as brief as possible, but because of the language used I need to use more words to express my ideas. It is always the best way to speak out the main points only."

Fiona's response was also revealing in that she referred to anything more than a few words as "a speech." Her comments indicate that, like the other interviewees, they perhaps do not share the professor's understanding of what constitutes a "discussion." Fiona' s comments went as follows: "Well it depends. Usually, I will not have a lot to say for it is only a discussion. I'm not the one to deliver a very important speech." In response to the same question, Ping simply stated that she is "as brief as possible" and did not give any reasons for this preference. Mei emphasized the value of getting to the point quickly, "I do not have a lot to say, neither do I answer in one sentence. I would say that I am in the middle of these two. I will finish if I have evaluated my points." None of the students wanted to be seen as dominating the class discussion. This may be due to the influence of the Chinese culture which emphasizes modesty (Tsui 1996).

Student Participation in Case Discussions

In response to the question, "Why do you think many students do not volunteer ideas in case discussions in English?," interviewees gave a variety of explanations for this phenomenon. Kit listed the following reasons: "First of all, maybe they are shy and do not want to be the focus of attention. Secondly, they do not have confidence in their ideas. Therefore, they do not want to volunteer ideas in case discussions."

Ping pointed to linguistic factors: "Maybe they are worrying that their English is not fluent enough." Kwan Yu also voiced similar concerns about the use of English but also went on to add that the school system in the territory does not prepare students for case-based learning. "English is only one of the many problems. Another is the traditional education system in Hong Kong. Students would not volunteer ideas in front of the whole class freely. Maybe English is a factor but the large class size also makes it impossible to create the atmosphere for full-class discussions. If we reduce the class size to 10 or 20, then case discussions will be possible."

Fiona again emphasized the importance of seating position and her view that the professor selects only certain students to participate. "Our professor asks students to give answers randomly. Sometimes if you are sitting at the corner of the classroom or you do not have any response, the professor will not pick you out. He will only ask those who like to volunteer and those who are active in class."

In contrast with research that explored the reticence of secondary school students in Hong Kong, these university students did not mention a fear of being laughed at by their classmates or teacher (Walker 1997; Tsui 1996). Instead, most of the students made favorable comments about the open atmosphere in the classroom and they were not concerned that their professor would criticize their English or ideas. Like the secondary students surveyed, however, some of the interviewees expressed concern about their poor level of English and the value of their points. At the First Conference on Case Method and Research on Asian Business Management held in Hong Kong in 1995, Lohmann and Kai-Cheng both reported on similar findings with Chinese business students at other institutions.

Response to Being Singled out for Questions

The interviewees were also asked to describe how they feel when their professor singles them out and asks them a question, especially if they are asked one that they have not prepared for. Several of the students responded that in this situation they would be afraid. Kwan Yu, expressed his concern this way:

"I would be frightened because of the different language used. If I don't know the answer, I would just make up one." Ping also commented that "this professor always singles students out and asks questions. I am frightened if he asks a question that I have not prepared for but the questions are not very difficult; they require only one or two points."

Mei noted that "it is a usual practice for our class because our professor likes to call out our names and request students to answer his questions. When I was younger, I would be afraid when this happened to me but I'm already studying in the university and it is quite normal for us to answer questions in class. I would not feel frightened. If I was asked a question that I have not prepared for, I will see if I can play it by ear and think of an answer on the spot. If I really have no idea about it, I will confess that I have not read the case."

Perceived Characteristics of Active Participants in Case Discussions

When asked to describe the characteristics of students who speak up most frequently in full-class case discussions, many of the interviewees mentioned similar attributes: a better command of English, more confidence in their English level and ideas, an extroverted personality, and better preparation. Kwan Yu made the following observations: "I think they have a higher proficiency in English and are more confident. They are also more outgoing. They probably have spent more time analyzing the case before class." Mei made similar comments, noting that "the trend is that students with better English are more willing to express their opinions."

Two of the other interviewees believed that active participation has more to do with confidence in ideas than in the students' level of English. Ping stated "I don't think that students who speak up have better English; they just have more ideas than other students. They have more confidence in their points instead of their English. They also may have a more outgoing personality." Kit added, "I think if students speak up more in case discussions, their English may not be outstanding but it is still good enough for them to express their ideas. Of course, they would have more confidence in their ideas. They are not that shy and not so quiet in terms of their personality. Naturally, they speak up more often. However, it is not necessary for them to have spent more time to prepare for the case before class."

Reticence in Case Discussions

In the questionnaire, respondents were asked to answer an open-ended question, "What do you find the most difficult about participating in case discussions in English?" More than half of them (15) responded that they could not express themselves freely due to lack of vocabulary and technical terms in English. Many added that it would be easier to discuss the cases in Cantonese.

The interviewees were also asked to shed further light on the reasons why they do not speak up in case discussions. The responses were quite varied, identifying such problems as a dislike for being the center of attention, a poor seating position in the class, being ill-prepared, not knowing the answer, waiting to be singled out, and not understanding the question.

Kwan Yu, the most active participant, said that when he remained silent, it was because he didn't know the answer, adding that he didn't like being the focus of attention. Fiona, in contrast, cited the importance of her seating position as a key determinant of her degree of participation in class. She also placed the responsibility of her participation on the professor, expecting him to single her out if he wanted her to respond. Explaining why she rarely spoke up, she commented that "maybe it's because I am not sitting in the middle of the classroom. I don't have a good position. I think it is because I didn't know the answer when he asked me in the very beginning so later on he would have the impression that I may not know the answer to other questions so he just ignores me. I think if I am sitting at the left or right side of the classroom, he cannot see me." She went on to add: "Some students may have more opportunity to speak in class. The students whose names the professor could remember will be asked more often. In order to speed up the discussions, he will ask those whose names he is familiar with."

Ping admitted that she had become used to remaining silent; it had become a normal pattern of behavior for her. "My classmates are not active in case discussions. Then, the professor would usually ask a few students to answer his questions. I would feel that it is usual for me to sit still and wait for the answers. Also, if I am not well prepared, then I would be afraid of speaking up." Mei is the only interviewee who commented that she sometimes did not understand what the professor was saying, although it is not clear if she is referring to a problem with the language or content. "If I don't speak up in case discussions, maybe it's because I don't understand the questions or I don't have any ideas about it. That's why I don't speak up. I don't find it embarrassing to raise up my hand because I only speak up when I have ideas; otherwise I will remain silent. I am not afraid of speaking up if I know the answers." Mei's first comment also brings up another issue, that is the use of questions by students. Analysis of the transcripts reveals that students seldom ask their professor to explain terms or concepts even though they have indicated in the survey that they have difficulty understanding the Western-based cases. Similar to Tsui's (116) findings in Hong Kong secondary schools, Chinese students rarely take the initiative to seek clarification or ask questions in classes.

It is clear from the students' comments as well as observations of their behavior in case discussions that most do not feel it is natural to volunteer or make comments spontaneously in case discussions in English. This certainly does not come easily for them. Instead, they prefer or expect to be called on by their professor or will remain silent as in most of the lectures or case "discussions" they attend. If they are not singled out, they may feel slighted and perhaps even a bit resentful of students that they perceive as receiving too much attention from the professor. They do not seem to feel that the professor's questions to the whole class offer enough encouragement or incentive to jump into the discussion or perhaps they are afraid to be the focus of attention and will only make comments if they have no choice.

When asked, "What, if anything would you like to change about the way you participate in case discussions in English?" most responded that they would like to speak up more. Mei responded, "I would like to speak more. I only speak up once or twice in each class. It's difficult to say. If you talk more, then not every classmate will have the chance to speak in class. This deprives other classmates of the opportunity to express their ideas. What I like best is to be able to express my ideas the minute they spring to my mind."

STUDENTS' VIEWS ABOUT WAYS TO IMPROVE CASE DISCUSSIONS

When asked, "How do you think students can be encouraged to participate more actively in full-class case discussions in English?," the responses were quite varied and seem to have been expressed with much thought and reflection. Their suggestions covered such topics as class size, classroom atmosphere, teaching style, evaluation of participation, the selection of individuals to speak, group work, and the use of locally-based cases to motivate students to participate.

Mei gave the following advice: "The professor can tell the class that he does not mind hearing wrong answers; he is an easy-going person and doesn't give students the impression that he is very strict. If you are very strict, students will be in awe of you. It is also a good idea to give more weight to participation in class because most students in Hong Kong are result-oriented. With a greater emphasis on class participation, students may participate more actively in case discussions." Kwan Yu focused on the importance of restricting the number of participants in case discussions. We need "more classes with a smaller class size. It is impossible to discuss cases in classes with 30-40 students. There are not enough opportunities for students to speak up; it's hard to carry out these case discussions."

Fiona recognized the challenge facing her professor, noting that he must single out students in order to get a comment or answer. This is a phenomenon that was also observed in case discussions that were led by other business professors at this institution. When the professors ask questions to the class as a whole, they almost never get a response. Thus, Fiona's advice in this context is very insightful. "It [encouraging students to take a more active role in case discussions in English] is hard to do. I think calling out names is an effective method to speed up the discussion. The class will only remain silent if the professor lets the class volunteer. No matter whether the discussion is conducted in English or in Cantonese, we will only have dead air in our discussion."

Ping offered another suggestion: "Make groups voice their opinions instead of a few individuals in the class. I think if we divided the class into small groups and each group assigns a volunteer to speak up, it would be a good method for case discussions."

Kit was more concerned about the source of cases and reiterated his position that Hong Kong based cases should be used whenever possible: "It would be easier for us if the professor guided us throughout the discussions, and maybe students would become more active in class. On the other hand, if the professor chooses topics which are closer to home or more interesting, this might encourage us to volunteer ideas more often."

SUGGESTIONS FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE SPECIALISTS TO HELP STUDENTS PREPARE FOR CASE DISCUSSIONS IN ENGLISH

On the questionnaire, students were asked what they thought an English language course should focus on to best help students prepare for studying/discussing business cases in English. As well as oral skills for presentations, discussions and negotiations, many suggested that the course include material that will require the students to use their analytical skills. The breakdown of the responses to this open-ended question is as follows:

No. of respondents	Suggestions
7	focus on presentation skills
5	help students develop the ability to argue, defend, negotiate
5	help students develop analytical skills, e.g. the ability to distinguish between relevant/irrelevant information
4	provide students with lots of opportunity to speak and discuss freely
4	encourage students to participate in small group discussions so that they will be more willing to speak

CONCLUSION

Engaging students in case discussions is a challenge that most business professors face no matter where they teach. The problem of getting students to take an active role in these discussions, however, is particularly acute with Chinese students, who tend to be more reserved and reticent than their Western counterparts. Changing well established patterns of behavior will not happen overnight. If it is to change, the reasons for their reticence in case discussions must be recognized and understood.

An ethnographic approach such as the one followed in this study yields insights that are valuable in terms of needs analysis for the specific course under study. The findings also have wider implications within the context of case-based teaching in English to Asian students. The study has revealed a complex picture of the perceptions and problems of students struggling to adjust to a challenging learning situation, that of case discussions with a native-speaker of English who actively seeks to engage them in discussion. Case discussions are very daunting for Chinese students and certainly frustrating for the professor. It is, therefore not surprising that in recent interviews with over twenty business administration professors at the Chinese University, several of them acknowledged that they had given up trying to engage their students in "discussion" and instead were presenting the case analysis as a lecture.

Nonetheless, what is encouraging about this research is that there are steps that can be taken to improve the learning/teaching situation. The students who participated in this study willing and honestly expressed their views and also indicated that they would like to take a more active role in case discussions, offering some useful advice for both professors and ESP specialists. The professor whose class has been investigated here is an inspiring example of someone who is not shying away from this methodology in spite of the difficulties. He is still actively seeking out locally based cases and is continuing to try new approaches to engage his students.

RECOMMENDATIONS

FOR CONTENT (BUSINESS) PROFESSORS

The results of the study provide a number of lessons for those involved with students having to cope with case analysis/discussion in a second language. For business professors, some of these lessons might be as follows:

- in the course syllabus clearly state your expectations regarding the students' responsibilities/ participation in case based learning and reinforce this throughout the semester;
- use as many locally based cases as possible to engage the students and deal with concepts that are of relevance to them (at minimum, begin the course with a locally-based case);
- provide additional background information about foreign-based cases and, whenever possible, indicate how the content relates to the local context and their background knowledge;
- for each case provide a list of guiding questions to help the student in their analysis;
- encourage student participation by establishing a climate of openness and trust;
- call on individual students in case discussions (by name, if possible) instead of waiting for volunteers (select students from various parts of the room and keep track of the students who are called on so that all students are included throughout the semester);
- emphasize the importance/relevance of the students' comments rather than grammatical problems and ask for clarification if their points are not clear;
- don't assume that students who are not volunteering to answer are not engaged in the discussion (e.g. students who may be actively listening to the discussion and reflecting on it, may exhibit nonverbal behavior that in a Western context indicates lack of interest such as downward gaze and little facial expression);
- prepare and use probes to encourage students to expand on their responses which will likely be as brief as possible;
- don't be discouraged if students are slow to participate and expect that a variety of techniques will be needed to draw students into the discussion;
- allow a longer wait time for students to respond to your questions and expect a slower pace for the discussion as students will need more time to respond in their second language;
- encourage students to respond to comments made by their classmates so that the interaction is not restricted to professor-student exchanges;
- emphasize the value of student comments since some will likely hold the view that only the professor's (the "expert's") comments are worthy of attention;
- use comprehension checks throughout the discussion to ensure that the students are following (e.g. ask students to explain their understanding of concepts in their own words; don't rely on yes/no responses);
- use board work, listing key headings and points, to assist the students in following the discussion;
- when individuals and small groups of students talk with you just after class or in your office, encourage them to express their ideas in the full-class case discussions;
- assign students to work in groups and, on occasion, encourage group representatives to present ideas about various aspects of a case;
- be patient; old habits die hard.

FOR ESP SPECIALISTS

This study also has implications for English language course developers and teachers. In particular, ESP business specialists in a similar situation might develop and implement courses to:

- help students develop the skills and confidence they need to take a more active role in case discussions (e.g., through role plays of business meetings related to the problem a particular company is facing);
- provide students with ample opportunity to discuss business topics in small groups;
- videotape the students engaged in case discussions, role plays, or presentations and guide them in an analysis of their performance;
- encourage students to express their concerns about speaking out in their content (business) courses;
- make it explicit to students that their business professors want them to participate actively in case discussions.

FUTURE ANALYSIS

This report has focused on the perceptions of students in one business administration course at The Chinese University. Three other sections of the same course, *Business Policy and Strategy,* taught by three different professors, were also investigated following similar ethnographic procedures. The data obtained from these classes will be examined to identify patterns and suggest further recommendations for improvements in the case-based learning situation. This data will also facilitate an analysis of stylistic and linguistic variations in the ways that cases are presented and discussed. Variations in the participation behavior of students with different teaching styles will be the focus of the next phase of this research. Hopefully, this will shed more light on ways to prepare students for the challenges of case-based learning and lead to more interactive discussions, lessening the frustrations of both professors and students. Considering the benefits of this methodology, especially in an international context such as Hong Kong where well-developed interpersonal, analytical and decision-making skills are essential for business professionals, it is well worth the investment.

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HEALTH BENEFIT CHOICE IN TWENTY ORGANIZATIONS: A CASE BASED ANALYSIS

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Abstract

This paper reports the results of a study of the health benefits decisions of twenty employers. A naturalistic field study was used to determine the multiple reasons for recent insurance trends. I explored two research questions: do employers from different sectors of the economy (of different sizes) choose different types of insurance? I find that both employer size and employer type affect the health insurance choice, but size appears to have the larger effect

INTRODUCTION

Health care costs have increased dramatically in the United States over the past three decades. Between 1960 and 1993, health care expenditures rose from 5.3% to 13.9% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Over the same time period, per capita expenditures increased from $143 to $3299, and total expenditures grew from 27.1 to 884.2 trillion dollars. In recent years, annual expenditures have grown at more than twice the general inflation rate in the economy [Statistical Yearbook, 28th and 29th editions; Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1995]. Health care expenditures are projected to grow to more than 18% of GDP by the end of the century [Lee and Estes, 1994, p. xi.

While organizations are concerned about the level of health care costs, there has been no consensus as to how costs are best controlled. However, the means by which cost control is achieved will affect the quality of care patients receive ([Flood and Fennell, 1995], and different mechanisms will have different effects on the overall economy [Pauly, 1995].

This paper reports the results of a study of one cost control mechanism encountered with increasing frequency: the use of a type of insurance product known in the aggregate as managed care organizations (MCOs) to provide employee health benefits.

MCOs attempt to control costs by changing the incentives offered to medical care givers. While there are a great many ways to organize a managed care organization, for the purposes of this paper I have adopted a simple dichotomy, whether an MCO follows a closed model or an open model arrangement. This classification system serves my purposes well for two reasons: first, economists agree that closed model MCOs do control costs better than traditional insurance [Miller and Luft, 1994; Newhouse, 1974] but the jury remains out on open model costs.[1] Second, several ways of typifying open model organizations exist, and their characteristics often overlap [e.g., see Greiner, 1995; Japsen, 1994; Phelps, 1992, p. 321], so that sub-classification may be undependable.[2]

The first closed model MCO was organized in 1942, and health insurance was an accepted employee benefit by the mid-1950s [Stevens, 1989]. However, before government incentives began in the 1970s, MCOs grew very slowly. There were at least two reasons. First, the American public, was reluctant to give an insurer that much control over their medical care. Second, employers were concerned that costs might actually rise, if the increased benefits (preventive care) did not result in healthier employees [Clarke, 1994;

Herrmann, 1993].[3] In response, insurers developed open model MCOs, and growth increased dramatically. By 1994, nearly 20% of the U S population had insurance through some type of MCO. Currently, over 70% of the enrollment is in open model MCOs [Folland, Goodman and Stano, 1997, p. 276].

Type of insurance, however, is not the only determinant of health benefit costs. Small employers[4] traditionally have had more difficulty finding affordable insurance than larger ones. They often find fewer plans available, the prices they pay have historically been higher [Phelps, 1992, p. 294], and they lack sufficient employees to make 'self-insurance' worthwhile.[5] Due to these problems, small employers are less likely to provide insurance coverage. As shown in Table 1, the likelihood both that an employee will have health care benefits and that those benefits will be provided by his or her employer increases with employer size.

TABLE 1
SOURCES OF EMPLOYEE HEALTH INSURANCE BY EMPLOYER SIZE

Number of Employees	Employer	Indirect*	Other**	No Health Insurance
Fewer than 25	31	23	27	29
25 to 99	53	16	11	20
100-499	65	14	9	12
500-999	69	13	7	10
More than 1000	71	13	7	9

All numbers are percentages
*Indirect coverage is provided through an employee's spouse
** Other means that the employee has insurance from another source, such as an individual policy or through a group of which (s)he is a member
Source: Employee Benefits Research Institute, 1992, Table 23

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In light of employers' concerns for health care benefit costs, employees' continuing resistance to closed model MCOs, the inconclusive results of research into costs of open model MCOs, and inconclusive results of research into quality of care for MCOs in general [Folland, Goodman and Stano, 1997], it seemed appropriate to explore the experiences of employers who have adopted MCOs of each type. Because of differences among coverage cited above, and a concern for the growing number of uninsured people, the majority of whom are employed,[6] it also seemed important to consider the questions as they apply to employers of various sizes. These motivations led me to four primary research questions.

- Research Question 1: Do employers with different levels of technical and institutional development choose different types of insurance?
- Research Question 2: Do employers of different size choose different types of insurance?

RESEARCH PROCESS

SAMPLE SELECTION

Sampling was theoretical in nature. The first step was the development of a framework for choosing organizational types. Since previous literature led me to expect that factors which might help to explain employers' choice of benefit plans were size, cost savings and social pressures, I adopted a sampling strategy based on the levels of institutionalization and technical development of various industries [Scott and Meyer, 1991; Alexander and D'Aunno, 1990, building upon seminal work of Burchell, et al., 1980]. Organizations from highly institutionalized industries with low levels of technical development were expected to have more socially derived motivations, those from industries with high levels of technical development and low levels of institutionalization were expected to have motivations more related to cost savings, and those in hybrid industries to have mixed motivations. After industry types were chosen, a list of potential organizations was developed. Care was taken to balance the four cells reasonably well, and to include employers of different sizes[7] in each cell so that I could attempt to separate effects due to size from those due to industry membership. Thirty potential employers were contacted. Of these, twenty-five agreed to participate in the study. One asked to be removed from the study after the initial set of interviews, and four others were eliminated due to limited data availability, leaving a sample of twenty. Those organizations were distributed as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
CATEGORIZATION OF PARTICIPATING ORGANIZATIONS
Technical Development

Institutional Development	Low	High
Low	**Small** Restaurant Chain Country Club Personal trainers Video and Appliance Store Hardware Store **Medium** Security Service	**Medium** Medical Imaging Manufacturer Public Transportation Manufacturer **Large** Commodities Manufacturer Steel Manufacturer
High	**Small** Freight Forwarder Beer Distributor **Medium** Private University **Large** Accounting Firm Public University State-Related University	**Medium** Academic Hospital **Large** Two banks Brokerage Firm

DATA COLLECTION

In order to pursue these questions, a naturalistic field study approach [i.e., see Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Strauss, 1987; Van Maanen, 1979; Sanday, 1979; Runkle and McGrath, 1972; Abdel-Khalik and Ajinkya, 1979; Marshall, 1985] was adopted. After organizations agreed to participate, each sent me the new employee benefits information package. During this time, I also collected historical information on the organizations to help ground my work in an understanding of the economic and social situation faced by each organization. All this information was used to develop semi-structured interview questions.

Next, I visited the organization's administrative office to conduct in-depth, in-person interviews. Interviews were recorded and transcribed, and those transcripts became the second primary data source.[8]

The initial interview was with the person most responsible for the choice of employee health benefits, as identified by the organization. This person directed me to others who also could provide information.

At small employers, often only one person was interviewed, and the length of the interview was generally between one and one-half and two hours. As employer size grew, the number of interviewees also tended to grow. The most extensive interviewing at any organization included interviews with seven persons over a three day period. In several organizations, interviews with selected external constituents (i.e., union officials, MCO officers, consultants) took place.

ANALYSIS AND VALIDITY CHECKING

After initial interviews were transcribed, analysis and additional questioning took place in a recursive manner. Interviewee-specific follow-up questions were developed and asked by mail or phone. Analysis continued and, in a few instances, a second follow up was necessary. Preliminary results were shared with participants, in a formal "member check" [Lincoln and Guba, 1985], to confirm the credibility of my interpretations, before the project was completed.

FINDINGS

RESEARCH QUESTION 1

Do employers with different levels of technical and institutional development choose different types of insurance?

This question can best be answered by looking at the insurance plans actually in use by employers. Therefore, background information about each employer, as well as information about the types of insurance plans chosen by each and any recent changes, is presented in Tables 3 through 10.

For each table that presents background information, %PT is the ratio of part-time workers to total current employees. Avg Age is the average age of employees. LOS is the average length of service of current employees (In several cases, employers felt averages were misleading, and other information is reported). Financial indicates the company's level of financial strength. Union presents the level of union involvement with the employer. Retiree is the ratio of the number of retirees collecting health benefits to the number of current employees. State indicates whether the organization has location in more than one state.

In each table that presents the types of insurance plans available, numbers indicate the number of plans of each type an employer makes available for employees to choose between. In order to make numbers more comparable among employers, if an employer has more than one location, I report the choice of plans available in a representative location rather than the total number of plans available in all locations. Customization indicates whether the employer negotiates custom provisions in insurance coverage. Self-Insured indicated whether the organization is self-insured.

In both sets of tables, NR means not reported. Either an employer did not keep this information in its files, or I was asked not to make the information public.

Each cell of the matrix is presented in a separate et of tables to facilitate analysis, and size is included so that both size and employer type can be considered.

TABLE 3
BACKGROUND INFORMATION ABOUT LOW TECHNICAL, LOW INSTITUTIONAL EMPLOYERS

	%PT	Avg Age	LOS	Financial	Union	Retiree	State
Restaurant	NR	NR	NR	fair	none	0%	no
Country Club	60%	FT 30, PT 23	FT 5 PT 2	good	none	0%	mo
Hardware Store	80%	2 adults 5 teens	FT 12 PT 2	fair	none	0%	no
Personal trainer	80%	23	2	good	none	0%	no
Security	80%	young or old	< 1 yr	fair	none	0%	yes
Video	50%	late 20s	FT 6 PT 2	very good	none	0%	no

TABLE 4
INSURANCE CHOICES OF LOW TECHNICAL, LOW INSTITUTIONAL EMPLOYERS

	Closed Model MCO	Open Model MCO	Indemnity Insurance	Customization	Self Insured	Size
Restaurant	1	considering a switch	Recent	No	No	small
Country Club	0	1	0	No	No	small
Hardware Store	Current plan	definitely switching to	No	No	No	small
Personal trainer	0	New Plan	Recent plan	No	No	small
Security	0	0	0	No	No	medium
Video Store	0	1	0	No	No	small

Each low/low organization offers a health insurance benefit, and each currently offers a single MCO plan. Two recently moved from an indemnity plan, and that movement was primarily motivated by costs. However, within MCO plans, there is a clear trend toward open model MCOs.[9] None customizes their insurance plans or is self-insured.

TABLE 5
BACKGROUND INFORMATION LOW TECHNICAL, HIGH INSTITUTIONAL EMPLOYERS

	%PT	Avg Age	LOS	Financial	Union	Retiree	State
Beer Distr.	50%	FT 40 PT 20	FT 13 PT 1	very good	none	10%	no
Freight Fwdr.	2%	38	6	good	none	0%	yes
Acctg Firm	7%	31	5	very good	none	0%	yes
State-Related Univ.	33%	NR	NR	very good	none	~2-%	no
Public Univ.	50%	NR	NR	fair	low	<10%	no
Private Univ.	20%	NR	NR	very good	very low	2%	no

TABLE 6
INSURANCE CHOICES OF LOW TECHNICAL, HIGH INSTITUTIONAL EMPLOYERS

	Closed Model MCO	Open Model MCO	Indemnity Insurance	Self Insured	Customization	Size
Beer Distributor	0	0	1	No	Low	small
Freight Forwarder	1	0	1	Yes	No	small
Acctg. Firm	4	0	0	Yes	Low	large
State Related Univ.	1	1	1	Except HMO	High	large
Public Univ.	2	1	2	No	Low	large
Private Univ.	2	1	2	Varies over time	Low	medium

These organizations, except for one employer much smaller than the others,[10] offer a choice of types and often more than one plan of a given type. As to types of insurance, there are no clear trends. The accounting firm offers four plans, all of the closed model type. Only three of the six, all universities, have adopted open-model MCOs.[11] The freight forwarder has an MCO only in one state of operations, and only because it is mandated by state law.

TABLE 7
BACKGROUND INFORMATION ABOUT HIGH TECHNICAL, LOW INSTITUTIONAL EMPLOYERS

	%PT	Avg Age	LOS	Financial	Union	Retiree	State
Trans. Eq. Mf	3%	43	14	very good	none	NR	yes
Med. Imag. Mf	<10%	38	9	very good	none	<5%	yes
Commod. Mf.	<10%	NR	NR	good	high	52%	yes
Steel Mfr.	<5%	47	22	good	high	500%	yes

TABLE 8
INSURANCE CHOICES OF HIGH TECHNICAL, LOW INSTITUTIONAL EMPLOYERS

	Closed Model MCO	Open Model MCO	Indemnity Insurance	Self Insured	Custom-ization	Size
Transport.Mfr.	1	1	3	Yes	None	medium
Medical Imaging Mfr.	0	1	Phasing Out*	Varies over time	Low	medium
Commod. Mfr.	4	0	2	Yes	High	large
Steel Mfr.	3	0**	1	Except HMOs	Low	large

*The indemnity plan is available only to employees in remote locations where MCOs are unavailable.

** The steel manufacturer recently opened an experimental family care clinic in the location with the highest average medical costs where MCOs are not readily available.

High technical low institutional organizations resemble the other hybrid group. Most offer a choice among types, and often some choice of plan among types. The only employer which does not offer a choice of plans is significantly smaller than the others.[12] These employers each indicated an intention to move more heavily into MCO options over time.

TABLE 9
BACKGROUND INFORMATION ABOUT HIGH TECHNICAL, HIGH INSTITUTIONAL EMPLOYERS

	%PT	Avg Age	LOS	Financial	Union	Retiree	State
Bank 1	16%	NR	NR	very good	none	15%	yes
Bank 2	20%	35	NR	very good	none	NR	yes
Brokerage	1.4%	Mid 30s	7.4	very good	none	8%	yes
Academic Hospital	NR	mid 30s	~10	fair	none	NR	no

TABLE 10
INSURANCE CHOICES OF HIGH TECHNICAL, HIGH INSTITUTIONAL EMPLOYERS

	Closed Model MCO	Open Model MCO	Indemnity Insurance	Self Insured	Custom-ization	Size
Bank 1	0	2	0	Yes	None	large
Bank 2	3	1	0	Yes	None	large
Brokerage Firm	11	1	1	Except Premium Network	High	large
Academic Hospital	2	4	2	Yes	High	medium

These organizations are a bit of a conundrum. All are large enough to offer a choice among plans, all are leaders in very competitive industries, and all claim that controlling costs is a major concern. However, their insurance benefits are far from similar. Both banks have entirely phased out indemnity plans and have adopted "plain vanilla" MCO plans. By contrast, both the brokerage firm and the academic hospital have the full range of plan types, options within types, and highly customized insurance packages.[13] We need to look at factors beyond those in the table to understand their choices.

RESEARCH QUESTION 2

Do employers of different sizes choose different types of insurance? The tables above can also be used to answer this research question. I will evaluate each size separately.

Small Organizations

In the sample organizations, small employers can be found in both low technical cells. However, all but one low/low organization is small. That organization, the security service, consisted of a large number of small offices.[14] This confirms the predictions of Scott and Meyer [1991] that low/low organizations will tend to be small. Among the small employers, we find a very definite trend toward open model MCOs and a total lack of customization. That can be explained by small employer's economic constraints in the insurance market and the closer relationship with their employees and at times their communities, examples of which were presented above. It appears that small organizations adopt open model managed care plans to save money, but were unwilling to adopt closed model organizations because of concerns for employee choice and for perceived negative effects on local hospitals and physicians.[15]

Two small organizations, both in distribution industries, appear in the high institutional cell. These organizations were placed into that cell under the recommendations of Scott and Meyer [1991].[16] Both, at the time of this study, continued to offer indemnity insurance plans. They were, in fact, the only organizations in the sample which offered solely an indemnity plan. Both were also financially stable, family-owned corporations.

In summary, it appears that most organizations of small size will make insurance choices based on a combination of economic and social considerations; however, small organizations with stronger than average financial standing choose insurance based more upon social considerations than cost.

Medium Sized Organizations

Medium sized organizations, which are found in each cell, present a very different pattern. Most medium sized organizations offer their employees a choice of health insurance benefits.

There were two exceptions. As discussed above, the security firm does not provide health insurance benefits. The medical imaging manufacturer is the smallest organization classified as medium in size. As was explained above, the raters disagreed as to its proper classification, and based upon this analysis it appears it may be misclassified.

In summary, it appears that medium sized organizations tend to offer a choice of plan types and often a choice within types as well. These firms are primarily motivated by cost control, and use competition among providers as a secondary means of cost control. A few medium sized organizations customize health plans to a low degree, typically by requesting that specific conditions be provided insurance coverage that were available previously and are no longer included in the standard package.

Large Organizations

Large organizations can be found in each cell except low/low. All large employers except the accounting firm offer a choice of plan types and choices within types. The accounting firm offers a choice of plans, but all are closed model MCOs. The levels of customization are quite variable. Two do not customize at all, three customize to a small degree, and four customize their health benefits to a high degree. Most large employers self insure. Those who do not (or who do not in specific cases) were able to explain their strategy very clearly.

The accounting firm explained that they offered solely closed model MCOs for a very specific reason. They felt the cost savings were well proven, while those of open model MCOs were questionable. They wanted an insurance plan with very good cost controls because they customize their plans to a high degree, offering expensive benefits seldom available elsewhere e.g., coverage for in-vitro fertilization, help with adoption costs) in order to attract and keep qualified workers.

The reasons some large employers do not self insure were also quite different. The steel manufacturer does not self insure in HMOs because their employees' average health costs are higher than the HMOs standard rate. The academic hospital and the brokerage firm have entered into partnerships with insurers which preclude self insurance. However, both have negotiated a higher level of access to specialists and other specialized benefits than are available in most MCOs. Their emphasis is on long-term (through high-quality care which leads to healthier employees) rather than short-term cost savings.[17] Finally, the commodities manufacturer customizes its MCO coverage in ways that induce retirees to join.[18]

In summary, large employers are typically more concerned with cost control than social issues, but the means they use to achieve cost savings are variable and often highly innovative. When a large employer is also concerned with social issues, it tends to be because it is encountering difficulty in recruiting or keeping a specialized work force.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS

The organization's market sector effects its choice of health insurance plans. Organizations low on both technical and institutional factors made extremely similar choices. Each off offered a single MCO, and there is a clear trend toward open model plans. None customizes the plans or is self-insured. The health insurance choices of both hybrid groups also have much in common. Nearly all offer a choice of types, and often choices within types as well. There is no trend in the type of MCO chosen. Rather, these organizations plan to continue to provide a variety of plan types to employees. Most organizations high on both attributes all offer a choice of plans types and within plan types. However, in other respects, this group is quits dissimilar. Two have entered into very innovative partnerships with insurers and have customized their insurance to a high degree. The others do not customize their plans at all, and though they have adopted MCOs, they talk about cost savings in a more traditional manner.

Size effects health insurance plan choice in two ways. Small employers offer only one plan, show a clear trend toward open model MCOs, and are the only employers who consider personal factors in their decisions. Medium sized employers tend to offer a choice of plan types, and may customize the plans to a small degree, generally by asking a new insurer to provide coverage for an item that had been covered under a previous insurer's policy. Large employers generally offer a choice of types and choices within types. They are the only group to customize plans to a high degree, and if they do so it tends to be in a very innovative manner. At least for small employers, size appears to be the stronger effect.

ENDNOTES

1. The research that has been done suggests that open model plans are less effective than closed model plans at controlling costs [Phelps, 1992, p. 320].

2. The original MCOs, called Health Maintenance Organizations (HMOs) followed a closed model. They provided no insurance coverage if a "subscriber" decided to step outside the MCO for care, for example by receiving services from a non-member physician or hospital. By contrast, open model plans offer not only coverage within the network, but also a reduced benefit for care received elsewhere.

3. A third factor also restricted the growth of MCOs. Physicians and the American Medical Association actively opposed managed care [Folland, Goodman and Stano, 1997, p. 274].

4. Though there are several possible definitions of small, I will use number of employees. This is appropriate when dealing with insurance questions, for at least two reasons. First, one of insurers' primary criteria when pricing products is the number of covered lives [Phelps, 1992, p. 294]. Second, there is a clear positive relationship between the number of employees and the probability an employer will provide health care benefits.

5. Self insurance is really a lack of insurance. Large employers often find they can pay the medical costs of their employees less expensively than they can provide health insurance through outside parties.

6. Fifty-four percent of the heads of families without health insurance in 1990 were full-year full-time workers. Only 14.5% were non-workers. The balance (31.5%) worked less than full time or had some period of unemployment within the year. [Employee Benefits Research Institute Issue Brief Number 123 "Sources of Health Insurance and Characteristics of the Uninsured" March 1991.

7. Size was determined as follows. First, organizations and the number of employees in each were listed. Next, four persons expressed opinions as to the proper classification for each organization. These raters classified all but one organization, which has 700 employees, unanimously. On that one organization, the four persons were split as to whether it was of small (1 vote) or medium (3 votes) size. The next smaller organization had 200 employees, and the next larger organization 1250. The organization with 700 employees was ultimately classified as medium in size. As a result, "small" organizations in this sample have between ten and 200 employees, "medium" between 700 and 5,000, and "large" between 15,000 and 50,000.

8. For some larger organizations, additional data was collected from news articles.

9. This trend, according to employers, is motivated not by costs but by other considerations, such as restricted access to care or the desire to support the local hospital. This was perhaps best described by the hardware owner. She explained that for her small group, there was no real difference in the cost of the three types of plans. She switched to the closed-model HMO because she wanted to develop a relationship with a "family physician," and is now moving to an open model MCO because of fears about quality of care, after an event in which the doctor refused to see her son after an auto accident. He sent her son to the emergency room, in a clear non-emergency situation (headaches developed several days after the accident) because the auto insurance would pay for the treatment. Her concerns

were echoed by others. For example, the owner of the restaurant chain is considering an open-model plan which offers no cost savings because he does not want such restricted access to specialists, and both the treasurer of the video store and the owner of the beer distributor have turned down less expensive plans because employees could not receive non-emergency care at the local hospital.

10. The beer distributor has approximately forty employees. The freight forwarder has about 200, and offers the MCO only in the state of Massachusetts, and only because it is required by state law. The plan is more costly than the indemnity plan, because Massachusetts mandates coverage of items which are not in the other plan. All other employers in this cell have well over 1,000 employees.

11. The university is also the only employer in the cell to customize its insurance plan. This is due to a very unusual relationship with the insurer. The university, in a very remote location, developed a self-owned MCO which it later sold to the insurer.

12. The medical imaging manufacturer has fewer than 1000 employees. The smallest other employer in this cell has over 1400, and the others more than 20,000.

13. The differences appear to be the result of different ideas about costs among their administrators, and in their time horizon. The "customized" employers talked of overall cost savings (i.e., reducing turnover) and of a long time horizon (i.e., better care will result in healthier employees, who have lower medical costs in the long run). The "non-customized" employers were focused more specifically on health care costs and a short term time horizon.

14. However, as discussed above, the primary reason the security service made the decision not to offer insurance benefits was not costs, but employee attitudes.

15 Small employers are also likely to offer benefits to employees who do not qualify under the usual rules, but have a personal crisis. Several small employers mentioned providing insurance for an employee whose husband was laid off, who divorced, or who no longer qualified for his parents' plan because he was beyond age twenty-three. No medium sized or large employer was willing to make such exceptions.

16. This may be because most organizations in those industries are unionized. However, both of these organizations emphasized with pride that their employees were treated well enough that they had voted against union organizers on several occasions.

17. For example, the brokerage firm has developed a series of indicators which identify employees with potentially expensive health conditions. These employees are then given access to the most well respected specialists in (major metropolitan area) for diagnosis and follow-up care. The benefits manager, who trained as an actuary, believes that high quality care, received early, will lead to reduced health care costs.

18. Typically, retirees are quite reluctant to join MCOs. The commodities manufacturer found that among its own retirees, the was primarily caused by two concerns: the lack of coverage out of the area since a large portion of retirees go South for the winter, and limited prescription coverage typical in MCOs. In order to induce retirees to try MCOs, they negotiated unlimited prescription coverage and an ability to move into and out of MCOs at the beginning of any month, rather than only at open enrolment periods. After these changes, nearly 15% of retirees opted for MCO plans. This was more than three times the percentage of retirees choosing MCOs in similar organizations.

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CHAPTER TWO

MODELLING OF TEAM LEARNING

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Abstract

This paper applies integrative clustering to find out learning models of task-oriented teams. Models consist of patterns of group dynamics, research skills, leadership characteristics and structural attributes of teams. Three educational goals were pursued: increase student motivation, maintain the fast pace of learning, and make students more self-reliant. Kelvin's team-centred method of multiple exposure provided the training tool. The test is - what students are able to do on their own after the exams. Five models emerged from clustering analysis: underachievement, disparate factions, pragmatic organisation with diffused leadership, efficient adaptation to excellent leader, and creative and targeted interaction.

INTRODUCTION

The main contribution of this paper consists in applying integrative clustering to find out patterns of all attributes exhibited by teams in training. Partial clustering for each category of variables was implemented and discussed in [Kelvin (1997b)]. This experimental teaching approach was designed and applied in the second year course Industrial Analysis of the B.Sc. scheme Industrial and Business Systems, in the Department of Manufacturing and Production Engineering at De Montfort University, Leicester, England. The purpose of this paper is to furnish a method for finding out and illustrating learning models used by 25 task-oriented teams in a total class of 115 students. Models are simultaneous integrated combinations of group dynamics, research skills, leadership characteristics and structural properties of teams [Shaw 1971, Cooper 1975, Belbin 1991, Bartol et al. 1991].

The following research skills were evaluated: application of theories, desk and field research, selectivity and synthesis [Kelvin 1997a]. Group dynamics were assessed such as interaction, initiative, motivation, adaptability, creativity and organisation (see Appendix for definitions). In addition, two structural characteristics were considered: team size (three to six members) resulting from free team formation by students, and span. This is measured by the difference between the highest and the lowest individual exam marks for team members. Besides showing the spread of academic abilities, span is the indicator of cohesion and dissonance which condition and affect team performance. In other words, span is an important index of team composition, ethos and outcomes. Moreover, leadership characteristics were measured such as quality of leadership and leader's exam mark in relation to the team average, i.e. top, above the average, below the average or bottom. Leadership quality means to make cohesive task-oriented teams and motivate them to an effective performance. Research skills, groups dynamics and quality of leadership were graded by the lecturer on the scale from one (low) to five (high). Academic performance was measured by the average of three team report grades, the average exam grade for each team and the number of individual exam passes per team [Kelvin 1997a].

The main finding is that teams used diverse combinations of abilities and skills to achieve their educational goals. The assumption was that to achieve targeted outcomes trainees would use abilities which they perceived as most contributory and develop skills which they recognized as most confluent. Structured lectures were blended with informal tutorial workshops. Those workshops should be sufficiently loose to accommodate students with various learning styles, preferences for team roles [Belbin 1991], and predilection for blends of abilities and skills. All team attributes were selected by myself in designing the teaching method to accomplish my educational goals and objectives. The choice of attributes depends on the nature of trainees, expected outcomes and training environment. Therefore those working with children, speech-handicapped, pharmacologists, teams developing new pharmaceuticals, scientists, engineers, sportsmen, actors, designers of shoes and garment fashions, medical doctors, medical patients, public servants, forestry research teams and so on need to rely on different categories of characteristics [Kelvin 1997b].

TEACHING APPROACH

My pedagogical research explored how participants' motivation and involvement in the training process could be upgraded. Therefore the programme was designed to target motivation, skills instruction to support knowledge acquisition, business awareness and applications. The lecturer can make students grasp the theoretical concepts and professional techniques only when they are fully aware and prepared for them [Suzuki 1960]. Figure 1 illustrates interactive teaching and learning. The following sequence was used. In lectures students were familiarised with theories and techniques. Examples were given. In tutorials, concepts, techniques, abilities and skills were applied to 18 companies: Auto-Diesels, Bass, British Airways, British Gas, British Oxygen, British Petroleum, British Rail, British Steel, British Telecom, East Midlands Electricity, Guinness, Imperial Chemical Industries (I.C.I.), International Computers Limited (I.C.L.) Marks and Spencer, Mercury Communications, National Westminster Bank, Rover, and Thames Television. This was done to make students less field-dependent [Witkin et al 1977]. Individuality of outcomes was deliberately reinforced. This called them to exercise imagination and creativity. Previous business experience of students helped them in applications. The lecturer was more active at the initial gearing-up stages. But personal learning, mastering of skills and team training spanned the entire process.

FIGURE 1
INTERACTIVE TEACHING AND LEARNING. Design by Alex Kelvin. Graphics by Ian Calder.

The students have less psychological barriers to learning when the material is presented by their peers. This is the peer perception advantage [Kelvin 1993]. During the semester various teams talked about their working processes in class of over 100 students. The instruction in skills had to provide sufficient support for knowledge acquisition, increase awareness of individual potential, form professional thinking, develop confidence and self-reliance, and provide the basis for efficient performance. Once the trainees could perform, they could go their own way [Suzuki 1965].

To acquire mastery of concepts and techniques students have to practice them in simulated situations. The team-centred method of multiple exposure to the studied material (Figure 2) was specifically designed for this purpose. Techniques and methods of work had to be applied a sufficient number of times in a range of circumstances. This training method was devised to provide with each participant at least six exposures. Working in teams helped to shorten learning time and intensify applications. Teams provided the avenue for increased independence in learning.

FIGURE 2
KELVIN'S TEAM-CENTRED METHOD OF MULTIPLE EXPOSURE

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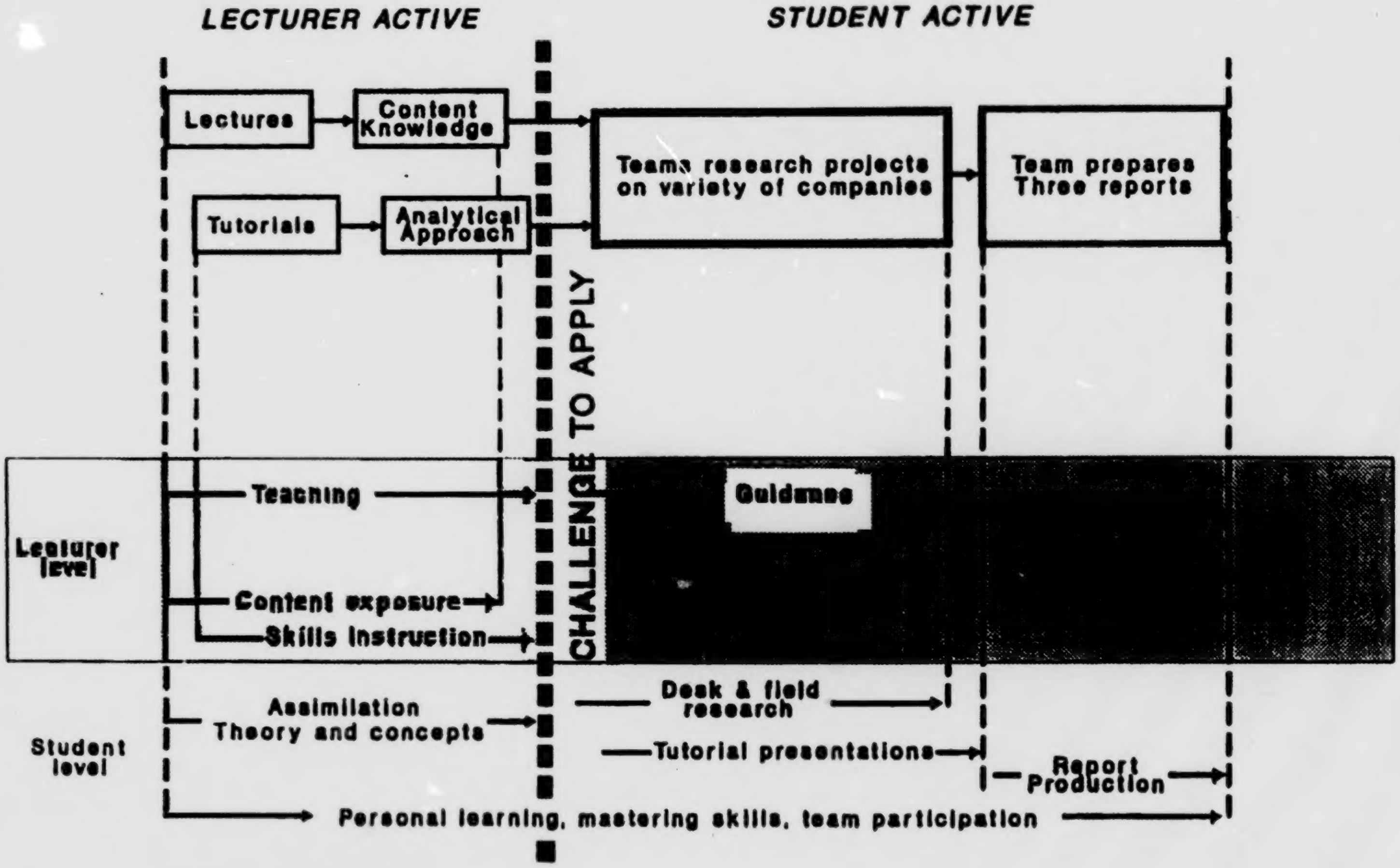
FIGURE 1 - INTERACTIVE TEACHING-LEARNING


LECTURER ACTIVE
STUDENT ACTIVE
Lectures
Content Knowledge
Tutorials
Analytical Approach
Teams research projects on variety of companies
Team prepares Three reports
CHALLENGE TO APPLY
Lecturer level
Teaching
Guidance
Content exposure
Skills instruction
Student level
Assimilation Theory and concepts
Desk & field research
Tutorial presentations
Report Production
Personal learning, mastering skills, team participation

Source: by Alex Kelvin

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FIGURE 2

Kelvin's Team-centred Method of Multiple Exposure Illustrated.

Flow chart I. Individual and team levels and cycles in learning

Level	Stage 1					Stage 2				Stage 3				
	Discovery					*Testing*				*Application*				
Individual	Lecture	Lecture notes	Books and periodicals	Team discussion	Company documents	Phone calls	Outside interviews	Tutorial talks	Data collection	Check findings	Work out snags	Put pieces together	Write personal contributions	Compile report
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
	Exploration					*Trial, adjustment*				*Pattern setting*				
Team	Parallel consorted efforts		Pulling together			Pooling Integration	Meetings	Tutorial talks		Team interaction Synergy			Produce report	
	Cycle 1					Cycle 2				Cycle 3				
Combined	Paper 1 Probing team potential					Paper 2 Experimenting				Paper 3 Streamlining				

Self-motivated research was chosen as the main dimension for the teaching approach. Purposeful group interaction in teams was applied as the second supporting dimension. Ball (1984), the famous American theatrical director, explains the strategy of predominant element or dimension (pp.27-30). The teaching method developed the ability to solve unfamiliar problems, starting with the immersion in company reports and up to the production of team research papers. Three sequential team papers allowed the students to probe team potential, experiment and streamline their performance. Guidelines were provided in briefs on which concepts had to be covered and which stages had to be included in empirical study design.

INTEGRATIVE CLUSTERING OF TEAMS TO IDENTIFY LEARNING APPROACHES

For illustration purposes [Kelvin (1997b)] clustered the 25 teams separately on each category of characteristics, i.e. research skills, group dynamics and leadership. This paper applies only integrative clustering using all characteristics simultaneously (Figure 3). Cluster analysis [Anderberg 1973, Dillon et al. 1984, SPSS 1988] is the multivariate statistical technique for setting cases in relatively homogeneous groupings. The principle of clustering is similarity, i.e. to make team-members of the same cluster as similar as possible, and to make team-members in various clusters as different as possible.

Clustering was used to find the patterns of abilities and skills. Five clusters seemed most convenient to reveal the learning models. Patterns of attributes are rated in Figure 3 on the importance scale using their statistical averages which are provided on the computer print-out. Only most important characteristics (marked with pluses) and least important characteristics (marked with minuses) are shown.

FIGURE 3
INTEGRATIVE PATTERNS OF TEAM CHARACTERISTICS

Importance scale	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	Cluster 5
most important					
+ 10					interaction
+ 9					adaptability
+ 8					leader quality
+ 7				leader grade	motivation
+ 6		leader grade	organisation	adaptability	creativity
+ 5		initiative	field research	narrow span	application
+ 4		creativity	motivation	team size	desk & field
+ 3		desk research	application	leader quality	synthesis
+ 2	desk research	synthesis		field & desk	selectivity
+ 1	interaction	selectivity		application	narrow span
- 1	initiative	leader quality	selectivity	creativity	team size
- 2	application	application	desk research	motivation	organisation
- 3	leader quality	adaptability	synthesis	interaction	leader grade
- 4	adaptability	interaction	leader quality		
- 5	team size	team size	leader grade		
- 6	organisation	wide span			
- 7	leader grade				
- 8	motivation				
least important					
pattern	underachievement	disparate factions	pragmatic organisation & diffused leadership	efficient adaptation to excellent leader	creative targeted interaction

Source author's estimates.

Cluster One (one team). The team members did some desk research and showed some interaction. However their motivation, initiative and adaptability remained weak. Their co-ordinator failed to organise the efforts. Its size of five was above the average. Their attitude can be called *underachievement.*

Cluster Two (four teams). These teams had academically strong leaders. But the quality of leadership was ineffective. Initiative was displayed by separate members, but interaction and adaptability remained inadequate. Separate individuals exhibited high creativity, but it was not properly supported. Desk research reflected good combination of synthesis and selectivity. However large size prevented synergy to emerge. These teams exhibited the widest dispersion of marks, showing gaps in expectations, motivation, abilities and skills. The resulting dissonance appeared too strong. The model can be called *disparate factions*.

Cluster Three (four teams). Organisation was outstanding. The teams were well motivated and able in the applications of theory. Empirical research was main asset either because of preference for practical investigation or previous working experience. Desk research was conclusive but just adequate. The leaders got marks below the average in their teams. The pattern can be called *pragmatic organisation with diffused leadership*.

Cluster Four (six teams). The most distinctive feature was academic excellence of team co-ordinators, combined with high quality of leadership. All teams were highly adaptable and cohesive. Narrow dispersion of marks showed compatibility in academic abilities and aspirations about training outcomes. Small size seemed to help streamline organisation and simplify interaction. Desk and field research was well conceived and implemented. The activities were well organised by the competent leaders. The model can be called *efficient adaptation to excellent leader*.

Cluster Five (ten teams). These teams exhibited fine interaction and adaptability. The quality of leadership was good, though the co-ordinators were not necessarily academically strongest. Creativity ran high. Application of theories was comprehensive. Desk and field research were even-handed. Synthesis and selectivity were in almost perfect balance. The dispersion of marks (span) was characteristically narrow which showed human cohesiveness and good academic compatibility. Some teams were large. For this reason organisation did not always work without a hitch. The approach can be called *creative and targeted interaction*.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper was to model team learning by identifying the combined patterns of characteristics used by task-oriented teams. Clustering produced five ranked aggregate patterns of attributes or models. They are: underachievement, disparate factions, pragmatic organisation with diffused leadership, efficient adaptation to excellent leader, and creative and well targeted interaction. The findings show that teams in Clusters One and Two did not group compatible individuals. This is in line with [Belbin's 1991] results that freely formed teams would not guarantee individual compatibility and cohesiveness. Since academic failures tend to concentrate in such teams, it is indicated to minimize their number.

The model displayed by teams in Cluster Four was strongly influenced by academically excellent leaders who were at the same time talented managers. This simplified interaction and streamlined performance. Teams in Clusters Three and Five used more diffused leadership styles (see [Kelvin 1997b, pp.17-18]). Cluster Three prominently modelled its strategy on applications and empirical research. The most numerous Cluster Five displayed diverse and rich patterns of creative, motivated and well targeted interaction to clarify expectations and achieve them. Patterns within Cluster Five deserve more exploration in further research.

The pedagogical objectives were achieved. The second-year students became more self-reliant, aware that they could learn a lot independently in business environment. They developed more versatile and sophisticated skills, and ability to apply them. This allowed them to bridge the gap between theories and business world and prepared them for placement in the third year. In the course of my consultancy work, I was repeatedly impressed by how competing companies use different technologies, distinct combinations of human talents and skills, and genuine organisational patterns to produce substitute products. Similarly, students from various teams discover and train themselves to develop those combinations of abilities and skills which, in their perception, are most instrumental to achieve targeted outcomes. This is an illustration of how learning is modelled.

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APPENDIX
DEFINITIONS OF GROUPS DYNAMICS

Interaction means the quality of relations between team members. It is graded on the scale from co-operation down to obstruction. Initiative reflects the ability and speed to form teams, select companies for research, initiate and implement research projects. Motivation measures persistence in completing tasks and obtaining the desired outcomes. Adaptability is the ability to adjust quickly, when confronted with changes. Creativity means the exercise of imagination in formulating projects, designing and implementing research [Lytton 1971, Freeman 1990, Goldsmith 1990]. Organisation means the process of putting the team members in a coherent and responsible frame of mind, distributing roles, sequencing tasks, sharing workload and respecting delays [Wellington, 1989].

PREPARING TEACHERS FOR URBAN SETTINGS: AN INTERACTION APPROACH TO EVALUATION

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Abstract

Clearly, the preparation of teachers to perform successfully in multilingual and multicultural classrooms represent a challenge to schools of education. Teacher preparation programs must include meaningful teaching experiences to help prospective teachers explore their own conceptions of teaching and learning, their understanding of subject matter, their understanding of students' understandings, and their skill in evaluating representations. Pre/Post assessments and narrative case evaluations are becoming popular as performance assessment tools. They allow teachers to evaluate student teacher performance and diagnose student needs. These types of assessments empower student teachers to take control of their learning by giving them an opportunity to participate in the evaluation process.

INTRODUCTION

Schools of education must examine themselves in the context of the radically changing diverse needs of children in our schools today. Prospective teachers must be prepared to meet these challenges. Furthermore, the knowledge that is essential for understanding and sërving urban schools and communities is limited and narrow and in need of vigorous expansion. Teacher preparation programs designed to prepare teachers, to serve ethnic minority populations are necessary and inevitable within the profession. Numerous writers have pressed for action to address these needs [Holmes Group, 1992; Rury & Mirel, 1997; Weiner, 1995; Daniel, 1996; Hollins, King & Hayman, 1996] and to improve the process of recruiting and evaluating the programs through which they are prepared.

Teacher effectiveness is currently a prominent national issue. As educators we need to treat the education of our children and the training of our teachers not as a science nor as an art, but as a profession in itself. Full acceptance of our professional responsibilities as teachers requires us to subject our educational process to the kind of analysis that [Schön 1987] has described as reflective practical and as [Peterson & Peterson 1995] have described as disciplined inquiry. As practitioners of disciplined inquiry, we approach the problem of teaching for practice empirically. We ask, who are our students and what do they seek from us? To whom are we accountable? What are the guiding conceptions within which our teaching practices are framed? What kinds of educational research might inform our efforts? How can our teacher preparation programs be evaluated and improved?

How student teachers feel about themselves, their abilities to teach effectively, and their adequacies in handling professional procedures are major issues to consider in determining the effectiveness of a teacher preparation program. As reflective educators, every one of us needs to engage in a continuing process of reflection as we teach.

[Dove 1995] implies that student teaching is an important part of teacher preparation programs. Cooperating teachers typically regard it as the most valuable part of their pre-service work. It allows them to model learning/teaching strategies that will demonstrate to teacher candidates ways of developing real-world, problem-solving abilities [Breivik & Hinkle, 1996]. It helps prospective teachers to develop beginning competencies and lays a foundation for learning. The perceptions teachers bring to their first teaching situation will have a powerful effect on them, shaping them to fit the requirements of the role and the environment. Some of the research on student teachers' beliefs shows that they have little awareness of people different from themselves, and that they view school subjects as procedures with little connections to themselves or to the world outside the classroom. Some prospective teachers perception of the teacher role, regard teaching as telling, and view learning as absorbing and reciting back what the teacher has told. How to modify such beliefs is a central question for both teachers and teacher educators today [Breinik & Hinkle, 1996]. [Waller 1932] framed the issue almost 59 years ago when he wrote that those who enter the ranks of teaching:

> ...do not know how to teach, although they may know everything that is in the innumerable books telling them how to teach. They will not know how to teach until they have the knack of certain personal adjustments which adapt them to their profession, and the period of learning may be long or short. The essentials of learning to teach begins when one's perception of teaching adequacies are positive. The recruits that face teaching as a life work are ready to learn to teach, and they are ready, though they know it not, to be formed by teaching (p. 380).

Pre-service teachers get their first major opportunity to test their teaching skills when they student teach. The development of perceived teaching adequacies during the student teaching experience is one effective predictor of future teaching success [Brogan, 1995].

This paper seeks to determine whether the students' perceptions of their teaching adequacy are modified through the student teaching experience. Two questions are assessed: 1) Does student teachers' self-perceptions of their lack of skills change as a result of the student teaching experience? and 2) Does the program prepare students to meet the Massachusetts teaching standards and for teaching in diverse settings?

CASE METHOD AS AN INTERACTIVE TEACHING TOOL

Case study teaching and evaluation is not a new concept in the field of educational practice and experience. Widely used its effectiveness in promoting active learning has been documented by many [Fallon, 1996]. Since classroom teaching can present a multitude of situations that require investigation and action, the notion of case method inquiry can have a meaningful place in teaching. We might define a case in teaching, then, as a particular situation involving an individual student or teacher that causes teachers to conduct a reflective investigation, to consider alternative strategies, and then to follow through to resolve the problem. Research on teachers' thought processes has focused on two areas where the kind of reflective problem solving characteristic of a case approach to teaching occurs: Teacher planning and teacher interactive decision-making. [Tiedt 1992] suggests that case stories created for purposes of instruction do not offer solutions to problems. Instead, they offer people a personal opportunity to engage in life with other human beings, to empathize, to understand, and to share responses with others. This involvement with the complexities of life and the willingness to admit human frailty and vulnerability provide a kind of learning for students who expect to become teachers that is not available in any pedagogical textbook.

Having novice teachers articulate ideas and beliefs about teaching through writing narrative case evaluations is valuable in preparing them to be reflective educators. The activity is valuable because they may not be proficient at identifying problems and transferring their knowledge to solve problems in the student teaching setting. Through case writing, student teachers learn to identify problems and decision points, as well as examine possible consequences and outcomes.

METHOD

Case questions utilizing The Elementary School Teaching Adequacy Opinionnaire and prepaid envelopes were mailed to participants in the Program to assess their perceptions of teaching adequacy prior to the summer teaching experience and again at the end of the summer. Additionally at the end of the summer, classroom supervisors also assessed the participants' readiness for teaching through classroom observational reports, utilizing the Massachusetts teaching standard practicum evaluation form. Narrative case evaluations were also completed by the student teachers. This process allowed the supervisors and students to engage in interactive conversation about their teaching.

The first discussion will focus on the pre/post opinionnaire that contains twenty competencies that most elementary school teachers deal with during a given year. (See Tables 1 and 2 for a listing of the individual competencies.) A five-point rating scale was used to determine perceived adequacy on each of the twenty competencies, with 5 being very adequate and 1 being very inadequate. These competencies correlated with the Massachusetts teaching standards.

Each student teacher completed the opinionnaire prior to the start of the ten-week program. After completing the four-week block of courses and six weeks of student teaching, the students completed the opinionnaire again. Group means on all twenty items were determined on the self ratings done by student teachers both prior to and following student teaching.

A comparison of the relationship between the means of the pre and post student teaching scales was determined using the Pearson product-moment method.

RESULTS OF THE PRE/POST ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHING OPINIONNAIRE

A comparison of total mean ratings is shown in Table 1. Prior to student teaching, the mean student teacher rating score across all twenty competencies was 3.52. After completing the block courses and student teaching, student teachers rated themselves at 3.86. The difference between the means indicates a statistically significant positive change ($p < .05$) from pre-student teaching to post student teaching.

TABLE 1
MEAN RATINGS OF PERCEIVED TEACHING ADEQUACY

Group	N	Mean	SD
Student Teacher-Pre student teaching	24	3.52	.28
Student Teacher-Post student teaching	18	3.86	.63

Based on a five-point scale, with 5 as very adequate and 1 as very inadequate.

Table 2 presents comparisons of mean ratings for each of the twenty competencies between the pre/post student teacher scales. Eighteen topics, each marked with an asterisk, indicate a significant difference between the pre/post mean ratings ($p < .05$). On both pre and post ratings, student teachers perceived themselves as adequately prepared on all twenty topics. On only two topics are the ratings lower following the student teaching experience. A Pearson product-moment correlation of .56 between pre/post sets of ratings indicates a moderate, positive relationship.

Discussion of the Pre/Post Opinionnaire

Of the twenty teaching competencies, the average student teacher rated himself/herself as more competent in eighteen categories after completing the student teaching experience. The average student teacher perceived himself/herself to be less adequate at the end of student teaching in only two areas: interpreting school policies and school law and identifying and planning for handicapped pupils. The decrease in perceived adequacies in interpreting school policies may reflect the lack of actual teaching experience in this area. The difference in the pre/post range in dealing with handicapped pupils is so small that it reflects no real change in perceived adequacy.

TABLE 2

Individual competencies	Pre-Student Teaching	Post-Student Teaching	Significant Differences
1. Knowledge of subject matter content	3.62	4.87	*
2. Planning for instruction	3.01	3.52	*
3. Classroom management/discipline	3.34	3.67	*
4. Evaluating pupil progress	3.47	4.02	*
5. Identifying/planning for handicapped pupils			
6. Constructing & evaluating teacher-made tests	3.03	3.08	*
7. Studying the adequacy of teaching materials	3.41	3.91	*
8. Identify/planning for academically talented pupils	3.21	3.56	*
9. Using instructional material	2.16	2.42	*
10. Using audio-visual equipment	3.91	4.11	*
11. Reporting pupil progress	3.31	3.57	
12. Interpreting school policies and laws	3.27	3.22	
13. Maintaining good school community relations	3.17	3.26	*
14. Collecting and recording vital information for pupil records	1,74	3.01	*
15. Maintaining effective working relationships with school personnel	3.27	3.57	*
16. Teaching listening effectively	3.61	3.95	*
17. Teaching social studies	3.95	4.27	*
18. Teaching art effectively	2.50	2.75	*
19. Maintaining effective working relationships with parents	3.32	3.62	*
20. Motivating students	3.95	4.21	*

($p < .05$)

RESULTS OF FINAL PRACTICUM EVALUATIONS

The second focus of the study was to determine student teaching competencies, based on final practicum self-evaluations, similar teacher evaluations, and observational reports completed by supervising classroom teachers. Table 3 summarizes the analysis of the final student self-evaluation and the supervisor's final evaluation based on the state standards.

Of the 24 students who completed the program, all successfully attained the five state standards for certification at the level necessary for provisional certification. Their self-evaluations were corroborated by similar observational reports completed by supervising classroom teachers at the end of student teaching.

The final practicum evaluation was completed separately by students and their supervisors. This evaluation focused on the objectives of student teaching and application of theory and teaching skills. A comparison of supervisor and student evaluations using chi square showed that perceptions of individual success are at a significant level of $p < .05$. These students were able to recognize areas regarding growth as well as strengths in their own appraisals of "self". This process of self-evaluation was one of the strongest parts of the assessment process and one of the five standards which serve as the basic goal in the teacher education program.

The teacher who continually evaluates his or her own performance in the classroom will be able to enhance personal and professional growth. Graduates of this program have the potential to be life-long learners as they prepare students and themselves for the twenty-first century.

TABLE 3

Summary of evaluation analysis is based on the final student self-evaluation and narrative. Seventeen students completed the final evaluation questionnaire.

Standard I - Knowledge

For standard I, knowledge of subject matter of elementary education and relationships among fields 69% of the students reported their own behaviors were frequent congruent with this standard, 31% reported sometimes and no students responded rarely or hardly ever.

Standard II - Communication

	frequently	sometimes	rarely
Frames question and so as to encourage inquiry	7	6	2
Allows time for children to do reflective thinking	12	3	1
	19	9	3
	61%	29%	10%

Sixty-one percent of the students were successful by frequently using appropriate questioning techniques 29% used appropriate questioning techniques sometimes and 10% reported rarely using open ended questioning.

Standard III - Curriculum

	frequently	sometimes	rarely
grouping	12	5	0
learning centers	4	8	5
units	16	1	0
objectives	8	4	4
planning/disc.	12	5	0
integrating	14	3	0
	66	26	9

Sixty-five percent of the students responding (17) were meeting curriculum development standards, frequently during their student teaching experience at St. Francis School. 25% responded sometimes meeting these standards and only 9% felt that they rarely were involved in curriculum planning related to the Massachusetts State standard.

Standard IV - Assessment

RESULTS OF THE NARRATIVE CASE EVALUATION

The final narrative case evaluation was coded, which provided two sets of scores in parallel categories. In order to figure the chi square, the Kilmogorov-Smirnov test was applied to the frequency distributions for the self- evaluation and supervisor evaluation. The test of similarity was applied according to the goals of the training program. The hope was that the student teachers' self-evaluation would not differ significantly from the supervisor's evaluation.

The frequencies for each group were added into the cumulative distribution and translated into proportions because of an unequal number of evaluations (4 students did not return their evaluations). Analysis of these proportions found category differences D which ranged from .000 to .320. The value of the statistic D, therefore, is .320, the largest difference in the cumulative portions. For the purpose of making a one-tailed test, the chi square was derived from the D by means of the formula.

The value of 3.48 is the final score in the test of similarity of the two frequency distributions. Comparative ranges of the scored evaluations are shown in Table 4 below.

TABLE 4
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES ON SELF-EVALUATION AND SUPERVISOR EVALUATION OF STUDENT TEACHING

Scores	Frequencies Supervisor Evaluation	Self Evaluation
0 - 25	0	0
26 - 50	2	0
51 - 75	4	3
76 - 100	2	10
101 - 125	13	5

Discussion of Narrative Case Evaluation

Participants were asked if they felt that they were prepared to teach in urban settings. For those who responded that they were well prepared, the distribution is as follows: ninety-five percent believed their student teaching contributed to enhanced skills for teaching in an urban setting and 81% of the participants believed that the professional courses contributed to their urban expertise as well. Eighty percent felt their interactions with parents and students in the community helped to enhance their knowledge of the culture and diverse groups.

The student teachers indicated that writing the case narratives about their teaching was beneficial in several ways. First, it helped them to reflect on their preconceptions about the classroom environment. Second, the student teachers benefited from observing other student teachers and writing a reaction to that experience. This gave them practice in analyzing problems, asking questions, and considering what other teachers might do.

IMPLICATIONS

First, the strength of the program lies in training effective teachers who are equitable, sensitive and responsive to the needs of all children. This theme should continue to be central to the program.

Second, while none of the student teachers showed deficits regarding the standards of certification, less than half of the students commented on how they made use of assessment regularly in their classroom. Efforts toward increasing this usage by student teachers who have begun to integrate assessment into their planning is a reasonable step toward strengthening the program. Assessment and evaluation could be further addressed in curriculum seminars and facilitated through elementary classroom opportunities.

Third, the results suggest that the participants gained insight about their teaching and learning abilities. Many favored the interactive approach to evaluating their teaching effectiveness. [Desmon, Kerlanage, & Seda 1998] suggest that many researchers feel that there should be an integrated approach to assessing teacher skills. Questions to be answered include: what criteria should be used to evaluate teachers? What skills, knowledge, and dispositions must a candidate possess? How do we develop shared understandings about what constitutes teacher effectiveness?

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THE USE OF CASE STUDIES IN ASSESSING PRIOR LEARNING: NEW STRATEGIES TO EVALUATE NON-TRADITIONAL LEARNERS

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Abstract

This paper analyzes present practices regarding prior learning assessment, and proposes using case studies, particularly for non-traditional learners. Present institutional practices *document* learning, relying primarily on *transcripts* of previous academic work, or they attempt to *validate* learning through *standardized tests, and portfolios*. Relatively few institutions require students to *demonstrate* present competence, knowledge, and skills. Non-traditional learners, now comprising more than forty percent of undergraduates, utilize validation procedures far more heavily than do traditional learners; improvements in validation and demonstration procedures are essential if these students are to be well served as postsecondary students. The paper examines how the present prior learning evaluation system works, how validation and demonstration can be improved, and the role of case studies in that process. The paper proposes utilizing case studies to enable institutions to assess competencies, and non-traditional learners to affirm their levels of achievement.

INTRODUCTION: VALIDATING AND DEMONSTRATING PRIOR LEARNING FOR NON-TRADITIONAL LEARNERS

There are a number of converging trends in American postsecondary education which, collectively, pose problems and challenges for institutional administrators and faculty members. First, increasing numbers of non-traditional students are enrolling in postsecondary institutions[1]. Second, there has been a substantial increase in the number of institutions attended by undergraduate degree recipients. Third, transfer credits now account for a greater proportion of total credits needed for degree completion than at any previous time. Finally, *credit for prior learning* through various types of assessment, notably tests and portfolios, has also increased as a proportion of total credits applied to undergraduate degree requirements.

In recent years, institutional researchers and evaluators have noted that institutions typically engage in *documenting* learning, rather than *validating* it for their current or prospective students. For example, an institution can document, through transcripts, that a student received a particular grade in Expository Writing or in Advanced Writing Seminar, but that documentation provides no information about the student's *current skills* in writing, or how much knowledge has been retained by the student and can be applied effectively at the current time.

The limitations of transcripts in validating learning were less significant when the majority of postsecondary students were traditionally aged, and moved directly from secondary to postsecondary education. As more students enter postsecondary institutions with transcripts from other institutions, and with elapsed time between periods of enrollment, the question of what students actually know, and can do, becomes increasingly relevant.

For non-traditional students, measures of their present abilities, base of knowledge, and capacity to perform well academically are important to their placement, retention, and academic success. For institutions, these questions are raised:

1. What content was covered, in what depth ?
2. Has the student remained current in the content area of the course ?
3. What is the student's current proficiency ? [2]

A further issue in validating student learning is the absence of standardization of criteria among institutions; decisions about accepting for transfer credit courses taken at other institutions are based on Catalog descriptions, not on outcomes of student learning.

To the existing system of documenting and validating learning which occurred before the time of enrollment, and frequently in a different venue, a third component must be added: demonstrating learning in one's present academic work.

This paper explores three interrelated questions:

1. How well does the present system work ?
2. What characteristics and components would improve the prior learning assessment procedures for non-traditional learners?
3. How can case studies be used to validate and demonstrate prior learning ?

This paper focuses on adult learners who now comprise more than forty percent of postsecondary enrollments. The term "adult learner" uses a single characteristic, age, to describe a cluster of variables to identify the new wave of students who have entered the postsecondary system in such large numbers since 1970. Horn and Carroll [1996] created a topology with seven characteristics, any one of which identifies a student as non-traditional:

1. Financially independent
2. Worked full-time during [period of] enrollment
3. Had dependents other than a spouse
4. Was a single parent
5. Did not obtain a standard high school diploma
6. Delayed enrollment into postsecondary education
7. Attended [a postsecondary institution] part-time

Using these seven characteristics, three clusters of nontraditional students can be identified: those who are minimally nontraditional (exhibiting one characteristic), moderately nontraditional (exhibiting 2 or 3 characteristics), or highly nontraditional (4 or more characteristics)[3].

As the age composition of students in postsecondary education has broadened, encompassing those across the life span, institutions have developed policies to deal with specific problems which have emerged. Some accrediting organizations, for example, require member institutions to award transfer credit only if the coursework is less than ten years old. Some institutions with portfolio development and assessment programs permit submission of portfolios only to those over twenty-five.

As colleges and universities deal routinely with the reality that substantial components of the credits applied toward a degree were earned at other institutions, and that some of the course work credited to a current degree may, in fact, have been earned many years before, they must have quality control mechanisms in place to provide the necessary assurances, for themselves and for the general public who view a baccalaureate degree as a certification of knowledge and competence. This paper describes:

1. The use of case studies as diagnostic tools to assess the prior learning and present skills of non-traditional students, and
2. The implications of this application of case studies for practitioners, the administrators and advisers who counsel and guide students, and the faculty members who teach and supervise them.

OVERVIEW OF THE PRESENT ASSESSMENT SYSTEM

The three major mechanisms by which credit is accepted for work done prior to enrollment at the present institution are: *transcripts, standardized tests (such as SAT, ACT, and CLEP) and portfolios*. The extent to which these are used varies by age at enrollment: traditionally aged high school graduates entering a postsecondary institution within sixteen months of their graduation are most likely to use standardized tests and high school transcripts; those who delay enrollment by more than eighteen months are less likely to use test scores, but more likely to have some credit earned at another postsecondary institution; those over twenty-five are most likely to use portfolios.

Some arguments have been made that *documentation* rather than *verification* works reasonably well, and demonstrated ability *while enrolled* is the ultimate criterion on which evaluations and judgments should be made. Certainly, the acceptance of transcripts to document learning has been done at nearly every educational institution. Tests and portfolios, mechanisms more recently utilized for documentation, are more problematic because there is research evidence indicating that individuals perform less well on standardized tests as they age, and portfolio evaluations are done by individual institutions, with little consistency among institutions. The utilization of transcripts and tests, however, is adversely affected by time horizons: simply stated, the longer elapsed time between periods of study, the more dated the knowledge, the more difficult the recall, and the more tenuous the conceptual connections.

Prior learning assessment is a general term used to describe an array of procedures enabling institutions to assign academic credit to students for learning which has occurred elsewhere, formally or informally, and which can be documented and categorized as equivalent to credit bearing academic learning. The principal mechanisms for *prior learning assessment* are:

1. *standardized tests;*
2. *institutionally developed "proficiency" exams;*
3. *program approval based on independent, external evaluations; and,*
4. *portfolios documenting learning* [Swiczewicz, 1990 and Wolfson, 1996].

The latter mechanism, in particular, represents a positive intervention widely supported by institutional advocates for non-traditional students. Portfolios provide a demonstration of competencies[4] as part of the admissions/validation/granting of credit process. "Front loading" that demonstration at the time of enrollment, rather than requiring it at the end of the educational process, in comprehensive exams or capstone courses, would provide greater direction to students and faculty. For example, students who receive credit for prior learning through portfolio assessment procedures fare somewhat better because the portfolio development process requires a demonstration of organizational, analytical, and writing skills. Utilization of portfolios as a means of documenting and validating prior learning has grown significantly in the past twenty years.

Actual utilization of *portfolios* by institutions has increased over time, but remains the least utilized of the four mechanisms, despite its popularity with non-traditional students. Swiczewicz, using a stratified sample of 299 postsecondary institutions, reported that institutional responses regarding whether provisions existed to award credit indicated the following:

TABLE 1
INSTITUTIONAL AVAILABILITY OF PRIOR LEARNING ASSESSMENT MECHANISMS[5]

Institutions With Provisions/Programs in Place (N=299)				
Evaluation Mechanism	Standardized Tests	"Proficiency" Exams	External *Program Approval*	*Portfolios* Documenting Learning
Number (Percent)	274 (92 %)	233 (77 %)	211 (70 %)	141 (47 %)

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It is interesting to note, however, that of the 141 institutions which had mechanisms in place to utilize *portfolios*, only 95 (67 % of 141) actually awarded any credit; 27 (19 % of 141) institutions awarded over 200 credits, and very few, 7 (5 % of 141), awarded over 800 credits, in a single year. Of the available mechanisms, *portfolios* are the most labor intensive for non-traditional learners to compile and assemble, and are the most costly for institutions to evaluate and assign credit. Moreover, the compilation of *portfolios* requires organizing and synthesizing skills with which may non-traditional learners are unfamiliar at the time of enrollment.

The essential skills required in portfolio compilation are:

1. Analyzing experiences in terms of learning acquired;
2. Categorizing learning in an academic/curricular context;
3. Focusing learning outcomes ("competencies) to educational objectives; and,
4. Compiling documentation and supporting material to establish that learning has occurred [Arnold, 1998; Evans, 1992; Lambdin, 1997; Simosko, 1988]

These skills correspond favorably with research findings about adult learning (which are described in the next section), and which can be taught effectively using cast study methodology.

Although non-traditional learners are more likely to bring more documented and validated credit to the institution, they are less likely to complete their programs of study. Data indicate that non-traditional learners have higher attrition rates than do traditional students. Because non-traditional learners also have greater remediation needs than traditional students, one can speculate that earlier and more accessible remediation support could reduce attrition. A recent analysis of adult participants in higher education, the National Household Education Surveys of 1991 and 1995, (NHES-91 and NHES-95) indicates that non-traditional learners are twice as likely as traditionally aged students to request remediation[6].

High attrition rates of non-traditional students and evidence of their low self-esteem and fear of failure provide some indication that even as barriers to participation fall, supportive mechanisms and positive interventions are not as available and in use as they might be. This is not because institutional administrators and faculty do not know enough about this population group. In reality, a great deal is known about non-traditional learners, but that knowledge is used sporadically in adapting institutional policies and services, and instructional strategies and delivery systems. Karol and Ginsburg [1980] suggest that because adult learners threaten the status quo, institutions are ambivalent about responding to their learning and other needs.

Recent research [Jacobs and Hundley, in preparation] based on NHES-91 and NHES-95 indicates that there are three interrelated educational issues affecting prospective and enrolled non-traditional learners:

1. Uncertainty about basic skills;
2. Need for peer support; and
3. "Equity" in the learning environment

These issues address the affective dimensions of the educational experiences of non-traditional learners, the major one of which is self-doubt. Self doubt among non-traditional learners results from negative factors such as:

1. Prior experiences in postsecondary education;
2. Hostile or indifferent institutional cultures;
3. Lack of institutional, employment, and family support; and
4. Low self esteem.

Each of the three issues described above can be successfully addressed through utilizing case study methodologies; case discussions prior to written assignments often alleviates concerns about the effectiveness of written skills; small group discussions, and the encouragement of study groups helps to build peer support; and, equity between traditional and non-traditional learners is frequently easier to achieve with a common starting point, such as case studies.

In the following section, some theoretical perspectives about non-traditional learners and their learning are described and discussed.

CHARACTERISTICS AND COMPONENTS OF AN IMPROVED ASSESSMENT SYSTEM FOR NON-TRADITIONAL LEARNERS

The best known conceptual framework for understanding adult learning processes is the concept of *andragogy*, defined by Knowles [1981] as encompassing five principles:

1. As individuals mature, their self-concept moves from dependence to self-direction;
2. As individuals mature, they move progressively from focusing on future applications of knowledge to the immediacy of application;
3. Adults' motivation to learn is influenced more by external, rather than internal, factors.
4. Adults' readiness to learn is significantly influenced by social roles and responsibilities;
5. Adults accumulate an expanding reservoir of experience, providing a rich learning resource.

Knowles' principles of andragogy confirm what faculty members who have taught "multi-generational" classes have known and experienced: the intellectual and analytical processes by which adults learn are significantly different from the processes of traditionally aged postsecondary students. This is true of entry assessment and screening as well, and Kasworm [1990] notes the "significant differences in their academic and life involvements" of the two groups.

Darkenwald and Novak [1997] indicate that mature students are more effective in modeling than younger students, which would suggest that they would respond more positively to case studies because of the case study characteristics described by Yin [1994]. Kasworm and Pike [1994] have examined a number of key factors commonly used to predict academic performance. They conclude that "more appropriate decision models" need to be created to predict academic performance and success of adult learners. Case studies, by their emphasis on relating prior experience to the examination of the case situation, provide a more effective forum for adult learners to display their competencies. They can also be used as a diagnostic tool to assess critical thinking, inductive reasoning, ability to generalize and conceptualize, integrate and connect, summarize and extrapolate.

Astin's [1993] analysis of the nineteen items which comprise (self-reported) growth in skills and knowledge resulted in his formulation of an *Overall Academic Development (OAD)*factor comprised of five specific areas: ability to think critically; analytical and problem-solving skills; general knowledge; knowledge of a particular field or discipline; and, writing skills. The components of the *OAD* factor correlates very well with what research indicates are the skills needed in effective case study analysis.

Prior research about skills needed to increase the likelihood of success in postsecondary education indicates that there are four central competencies, each of which can be developed through the utilization of case studies. These are:

1. Analysis
2. Reflection
3. Interpretation
4. Generalization.

The next section describes a framework utilizing case studies which can strengthen diagnostic capacities for non-traditional learners enrolled in postsecondary education.

THE EFFICACY OF CASE STUDIES

The use of case studies as a classroom pedagogy has been well established, and its use in undergraduate and graduate teaching has increased significantly over the past twenty years. Their increased use with non-traditional learners is best understood by examining the principles of their construction and application.

Merriam [1988] suggests that there are four "essential" properties of case studies:

1. particularistic
2. descriptive
3. heuristic
4. inductive

In operational terms, this means that are problem centered, rich in detail and documentation, infer relationships and consequences, and rely on inductive reasoning. Case studies, then, if used to assess academic development, can illuminate the student's abilities which comprise the *OAD*.

Stake [1981] also emphasizes the characteristics of case studies which make them suitable for advancing academic development, indicating that they are more concrete, more contextual, more developed by reader interpretation, and more based on reference groups determined by the reader. Finally, Yin [1994] describes four important techniques utilized in case study analysis which also strengthen a student's academic development:

1. pattern-matching
2. explanation-building
3. time-series analysis
4. program-logic models

Taken together, the premises of these (and other) researchers indicate the potential efficacy of using case studies to assess and validate present competencies. The expanded use of case studies, particularly for non-traditional learners, can also afford greater opportunities for more accurate assessment of competencies, and greater opportunity for students to learn effectively, and to demonstrate that learning. In addition, however, there are other beneficial uses of case studies, particularly in assessing competencies and demonstrating ability. This is especially evident for non-traditional learners as illustrated in the following table:

TABLE 2
EFFICACY OF CASE STUDIES FOR NON-TRADITIONAL LEARNERS

Competency	Characteristics of Case Studies	Characteristics of Non-Traditional Learners
Analysis	case studies describe a "bounded system"	non-traditional learners prefer studying concrete rather than theoretical subjects
Reflection	case studies encourage drawing on past experiences	non-traditional learners have an ever expanding range of experiences to draw upon
Interpretation	case studies encourage students to interpret findings	non-traditional learners utilize "modeling" to relate present and past experiences
Generalization	case studies encourage students to recommend practical applications	non-traditional learners are more interested in immediate and concrete rather than future and abstract issues

Because non-traditional learners face many challenges and obstacles when entering (or reentering) higher education, including institutional constraints [Wingard, 1995] and lack of confidence/fear of failure [Apps, 1981], case studies can facilitate and contribute to the positive learning experiences of non-traditional learners, as summarized below:

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TABLE 3
FUNCTIONS OF CASE STUDIES

Target Group	Effect and Function of Using Case Studies
Institutions	assessing, diagnosing, and validating competencies and providing needed intervention and remediation services
Non-traditional Learners	demonstrating and affirming current levels of achievement, enabling them to confront self doubt and academic deficiencies

For institutions, the administrative, learning, and other support services needed by non-traditional learners are frequently different from what is needed for traditional learners. There are four types of support needed: academic advising, remediation, skill development, and peer support. Case studies afford better opportunities for diagnosing skill levels and areas where academic intervention can be effective.

Non-traditional learners can bring to the discussion and analysis of case studies their prior professional and personal experiences both through relating similar relevant experiences they have had, and through extrapolating their pragmatic learning to the situations described in the case studies. To the degree that their own "life experiences" are the catalyst for analysis of case studies, they are affirming the relevance of those experiences to the roles as learners.

Utilized in these ways, case studies can play an important role in the success of non-traditional learners in higher education, with significant implications both for policy and practice.

IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY AND PRACTICE

The implications of expanded use of case studies can be viewed both from an institutional and individual perspective. Because of their potential as *diagnostic instruments*, case studies can be used by institutions to assess what services are needed by non-traditional learners, enabling them to be proactive rather than reactive. This can have cost and resource efficiencies, as institutions provide resources, such as remediation services, based on actual, rather than projected, needs. Indeed, case studies may emerge as an effective marketing tool, used in abbreviated fashion at orientation and information sessions for prospective learners. Case studies, used for *diagnostic purposes*, can result in greater cost effectiveness, a significant factor in a competitive market. Used for *demonstration purposes*, case studies help to reduce the anxiety so many non-traditional learners associate with test taking.

In addition, case studies afford opportunities for faculty to broaden and expand participation in class discussion. Faculty members can draw even reticent learners into discussion by asking them to relate a particular point to their own prior experience, or to ask peer support groups to prepare to discuss portions of case studies from particular vantage points.

For individuals, especially non-traditional ones, case studies reinforce one of the essential skills they must master as learners: *being able to move from the particular to the general, from the concrete to the theoretical, from what happened to why it happened*. Of equal importance to this shift in the paradigm of learning, is the evolution of non-traditional learners from peripheral members of the learning community, filled with self-doubt and threatened by an unfamiliar environment, to involved and increasingly self-confident participants, eager to learn, eager to share.

CONCLUSION: IMPLEMENTING NEW STRATEGIES AND PRACTICES

While much of what has been described in this paper is grounded in established research and theory, the actual utilization of case studies in this way has not yet been tested programmatically with non-traditional learners. To date, the most obvious response to increased interest in postsecondary education by non-traditional learners has been to expand access, providing greater opportunities, such as flexible scheduling, to encourage participation and enrollment. Yet, despite logistical accommodations, the attrition rate among these students remains disturbingly higher than that of traditional students. As educators, policy makers, and administrators, we know more about bringing students to institutions than we know about keeping them there. And even if they stay, we have difficulty evaluating their learning in the traditional matrix of grades and tests.

The increased use of case studies may be effective both in diagnosis and in demonstration, and is an initiative well worth attempting, especially in institutions with high attrition rates among non-traditional learners. Any attempt to implement such an initiative should incorporate into the implementation decision a component to measure the learners' responsiveness to, and assessment of, this use of case studies. In the end, their positive experiences are the best measures of efficacy.[7]

ENDNOTES

1. Since 1970, the participation of adults in postsecondary education has increased dramatically. In 1970 there were 2.4 million students over 25 enrolled in higher education; in 1980, that number had nearly doubled to 4.5 million, and by 1990, that number was 6 million as indicated below.

AGE COMPOSITION OF POSTSECONDARY STUDENTS (000)

Age	1970	1980	1990	1995	2006 (projected)
Under 25	6,196 72 %	7,560 62 %	7,752 56 %	7,940 56 %	9,886 60 %
Over 25	2,384 28 %	4,536 38 %	6,067 44%	6,339 44 %	6,503 40 %
Total	8,581	12,097	13,819	14,279	16,389

Source: U.S. Department of Education [1996]

2. A further complication for institutions seeking to validate rather than document learning emerges from the increase in "alternative certification" for high school diplomas. The most recent report on dropout rates in the United States, covering 1996, indicates a sharp increase in alternative certification, from 4.9 % of high school credentials awarded in 1990 to 9.8 % in 1996 [U.S. Department of Education, 1998]. Alternative certification is most frequently accomplished by standardized tests, rather than by performance in a course.

3. While some people object to the use of the term "nontraditional" because of its negative connotation with "traditional," it is clearly preferable to other terms currently in use such as "adult" or "older" learners, or "at risk" learners. The latter term, loosely associated in the past with elementary and secondary students, is generally regarded as pejorative because it "usually implies [students who] face obstructions to learning in the present because of past shortcomings in their preparation" [Quinnan, 1997, p. 30]

4. The term "competencies" is used here to encompass many elements, separately or in the aggregate, including mastery of knowledge, demonstration of skills, recall of facts, ability to generalize, and fluency of expression. Some students demonstrate competencies of all, or many, of these areas, some

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in only a few. It is the ability to demonstrate a competency which would be most valuable in assessment leading to validation of learning.

5. The data reporting on Swiczewicz's findings were analyzed by Taimi Arnold, a doctoral candidate at American University, and are used with her permission. The author acknowledges with gratitude the insights and findings she has shared.

6. The Adult Education Components of NHES-91 and NHES-95 represent the most comprehensive studies of adult participation in educational activities ever undertaken. NHES-91 used a process of random digital dialing to obtain telephone interviews with 12,568 adults. In that sample, there were 9,774 participants and 2,794 non-participants. Using a similar process, NHES-95 obtained 19,722 interviews with 11,713 participants, and 8,009 non-participants. In the two surveys, non-participants represented 22.2 % and 40.6 %, respectively, of the total sample. To define participation, NCES used the definition developed by Darkenwald and Merriam[1982]: *participation in systematic learning activities for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge or skills or changing attitudes or values, by persons who have assumed adult social roles.*
NHES-91 identified non-participants as those who were "not full time students in the past 12 months" and who did not participate in any adult education activities during the same period. These 2,794 individuals were asked to specify if any of 15 different factors kept them from participating. Responses sought were either yes or no, and no further explanation was requested. The survey instrument also sought information about personal characteristics of these individuals, notably demographic and household information, socioeconomic status (SES), present employment status, and level of educational attainment.
NHES-95 used the same description of non-participants, but the survey instrument was far more extensive, and information was requested separately for 7 different types of education and training programs: (1) English as a Second Language; (2) Basic Skills and GED Preparation; (3) Credential; (4) Apprenticeship; (5) Career or Job Related Activities; (6) Other Formal Structured Activities; (7) Computer-Only or Interactive Video-Only Instruction on the Job. Information about obstacles/barriers was solicited for activities 1, 2, and 5. The survey instrument solicited similar information about individual characteristics as had been obtained in the earlier study.

7. Stephen Hundley, a doctoral candidates at American University, reviewed and commented on drafts of this paper. The author acknowledges with gratitude his generosity and insights.

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A CONVERSATION ABOUT HOLOGRAPHIC LEARNING

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Abstract

Cultivating the ability to generate leaps of intuition can enhance problem solving and learning in any context. Holography offers a useful metaphor for mental operations that encourage these insights. Such methods include effectively oriented approaches, such as cultivating our instinctive panic when confronted with a difficult problem. Others focus on shifting and expanding our perceptions of situations, while those we call Miming the Masters and Brain Mapping use kinesthetic techniques to generate high-performance states. Taken together, the various techniques contain the potential to transform the ways in which we solve problems, learn, and teach.

DRAMATIS PERSONAE

John Michaels, President and CEO, Roxon Technologies
Frank DiSanto: Vice President, Worldwide Operations
Janet Kaplan and Richard Washington: Principals, KW Associates
Michael, Sarah, Ryanza, and Ron: Managers, Roxon Technologies

SCENE

A seminar room at Roxon Technologies. John Michaels and Frank DiSanto converse as about 15 managers settle into their seats. Two people stand to one side, awaiting introduction.

PROLOGUE

John: Six months and they're asking when the company is going to turn around. Six months, Frank! We've had our hands full just trying to keep the ship from sinking with the mess they left. But the shareholders are restless. And I don't have to remind you, we don't have golden parachutes, Frank. Heck, we don't even have bronze parachutes. Good stock options, though. I hope these consultants don't fall flat on their faces, Frank.

Frank: Our faces, John. If they fall, it's our faces eating pavement, John. They should do okay. Good references. Seem pretty sharp. I guess they're ready. Here goes nothing.

John: Welcome to our weeklong strategic planning session, led by Janet Kaplan and Richard Washington of KW Associates. Janet, Richard, welcome. Some of you have met with Janet and Richard already. KW has our complete confidence and we are looking forward to an exciting week. I should warn you – this won't be planning as usual, and it is important that you commit to the process. Frank and I will be taking part in some of these meetings, but for today, we'll leave you in Janet and Richard's capable hands.

Frank (as he and John leave): That's our future in their hands, too, John.

FIRST WORKSHOP: SELECTED DIALOG

Janet (responding to a participant): Very interesting insights. Why don't we take a moment to explain what we mean by "holographic" learning and thinking. How many of you have felt something "magical" happen when you experienced a leap of intuition, when everything fell together and you got that "Eureka!" idea?

Michael: I have. Back when I was a programmer working on the first on-line trading programs. No matter what I did, I couldn't figure out how to get rid of a critical delay, which could cost traders moving large amounts of currency. One night, I dreamt about a country place we stay at where there's a well. I dreamt a snake slid down the well and when I woke up, I had the solution. It was a very different feeling from working something out step by step.

Janet: That's fascinating, because one of the great discoveries in chemistry, that of the benzene ring by Friedrich Kekule, occurred as the result of a dream about a snake swallowing its own tail. Kekule awoke realizing that the atoms composing a molecule of benzene are arranged in a ring [Boden, 1990]. In fact, countless memoirs of scientists and inventors, even Albert Einstein discovering relativity [Wenger and Poe, 1996], recall the moment of discovery as a revelatory experience, often occurring in visual or physical rather than purely intellectual form. Even the rationalistic Descartes received his breakthrough insights while dreaming [Harman and Rheingold, 1984]. And many of our greatest artists describe their inspirations as deriving from such moments, whether waking or in dreams. We refer to this synergy of personal energies as a creative harmonic. The creative harmonic occurs when the separation of subject and object, of the doer and the work, dissolve and the mind grasps insights that possess a profound internal logic, a sense of "rightness".

Sarah: This feels mystical to me. You have to realize, some of us have gone from being one-minute managers to quality control experts and on to being coaches, confessors, consensus-builders – anything but managers. So now what are you saying? The next thing we have to do is become yogis or something?

Janet (laughs pleasantly): Not at all, although that's always an option. But why don't we go on a bit, and see. Richard, would you like to continue?

Richard: Thank you, Janet. Such intuitive leaps do not come out of nowhere. They occur within a framework of continuing analytic inquiry, immersion in the "mundane" details of a discipline or problem in the context of intensive learning and effort. This in no wise diminishes the reality of the seemingly "magical" effects often experienced in creation and problem solving. Indeed, such quantum leaps of insight actually occur throughout the inquiry process, not just at its culmination. By increasing their frequency and power, we can shorten problem solving cycles and devise more successful solutions. Holographic thinking and teaching aim to simulate intuitive thinking, with its attendant benefits.

Ron: Uh, could you restate that in English? (Some laughter Ron looks around seeking appreciation of his wit).

Michael: Ron, I was listening and believe me, Richard was speaking English. I guess what you're saying, Richard, is that these big insights, these visionary moments, don't come out of nowhere. That you work like hell to do your job, but that in some people, some deeper vision happens. Great artists or scientists have it. And you're saying you can teach it?

Richard: Exactly. Illumination comes from immersion.

Janet: Great leaders and great managers have that vision as well. It can be a sort of genius for dealing with people combined with a powerful intuition for how events are going to unfold. But it doesn't come about unless you've mastered the territory.

Ryanza: I know what a holograph is – it's one of those three-dimensional photos. But why did you choose the holograph as your metaphor for learning and thinking?

Janet: This would be a good time for a brief explanation of holography. To form a holographic image, one first splits a laser beam. One of the two new beams is bounced off an object, and becomes the transmitter of that object's image. The other beam is redirected, via reflectors, to interfere with the image-bearing beam. The pattern is captured on a film placed where the two beams intersect. To the unaided eye, the film appears only to have recorded the interference pattern, a swirl like oil on water. However, when a new laser beam strikes the film, a three dimensional image of the object appears, hovering around the film [Talbot, 1991].

Holograms have extraordinary qualities, and perhaps the most amazing is this: if you cut the film in half, the entire image still appears. In fact, you can cut the film into many pieces and each will contain the entire image, although the image becomes less vivid as the original film diminishes. In other words, each part of the interference pattern contains the entire image of the object, and each part can be activated by a laser beam striking any fragment of the film [Talbot, 1991]. Compare this to the partial image that results if we cut up a regular photographic negative. Another quality is the incredible amount of information one can store on one photographic plate [Loye, 1983; Talbot, 1991], which has implications for the way in which the brain stores information.

Richard: The hologram has become popular as a model to explain how the brain operates. Experiments have shown that people – and rats, too, of course – who have parts of their brain removed continue to retain their memories, even when the brain removal or damage affects other skills. Memories, it seems, are dispersed throughout the brain and not localized in one particular area. It used to be thought that each memory is imprinted on a particular region of the brain. But the truth is that it seems each memory is dispersed throughout either the entire brain, or large portions of the brain.

Meanwhile, the brain is rife with rippling wave activity composed of electrical charges radiating from countless nerve endings. These rippling charges overlap one another and create interference patterns very similar to, although far more complex than, the interference patterns of holography. Just as holograms can contain huge amounts of information, the brain has far, far more memory capacity than any technology known. Perhaps the key to the brain's memory is a holographic type operation: the interference patterns contain countless potential memories. It is only when some "laser-like" agent in the brain triggers the recalling of a particular set of memories, that that memory set comes to mind. When we no longer need the memory, it returns to its electronically coded pattern in the brain [Bohm, 1980; Loye, 1983].

Ron: This I understand, being an engineer. So, okay, the brain may well resemble holograms in the way it functions. But you still haven't answered Ryanza's question. Why did you guys choose it to describe what you do?

Richard: Because the brain clearly does not operate mechanically. It isn't a warren of little cubby-holes each containing its separate bits of related information. One researcher, Antonio Damasio [1994] writes: "...our strong sense of mind integration is created from the concerted action of large-scale systems by synchronizing sets of neural activity in separate brain regions, in effect a trick of timing [Damasio, p. 95]." Damasio is also adamant that the inter-relation of brain and all our physical systems is integrative and inter-dependent. We envisioned holographic thinking as a kind of systems thinking with another dimension added, a system that took into account the dispersed aspect of mental activity and its grounding in our entire organism. Holography seemed to capture the essence of it. After all, the holographic model of the brain is holistic in a quite literal sense, but it seems virtually four-dimensional – at least! So holography, as a cutting edge technology, as an aesthetically satisfying one, and as one that operates analogously to complex mental processes, seemed ideal as a metaphor for the type of thinking and learning we encourage.

CULTIVATING PANIC

Janet: Why don't we experiment with some of these methods? Tell me, how do you feel when a major problem pops up out of nowhere?

Michael: I go right at it. What's the situation, get my resources, timeline. The usual.

Ryanza (laughing): Not after cursing out the idiots responsible for about five minutes.

Janet: Does it bother you when Michael does that?

Ryanza: Bother me? No. We're friends so I trust his anger. In fact, he sort of does the cussin' for me, since I'm a lot more reserved than he is. It's nice to work with someone who vents his panic first – it helps clear the air.

Richard: Ah ha, there's the key word. Panic. Everyone feels it on some level in the face of a new problem or challenge, even those of us who love and welcome new challenges. Panic is a fundamental human response, as it is for animals. Human beings constantly work at alleviating panic by seeking explanation, order, and predictability. Indeed, one can argue that western philosophy begins as a response to the panic of disorientation. Descartes' aim to ground reality in one undeniable assertion ("I think, therefore I am"), or Plato's idealism, which sought to deny the moral and epistemological ambiguities expressed in myth and Greek tragedy, are only two stellar examples of our civilization's drive to suppress disorder. In a sense, we are all caught between meaning and bewilderment, and this dichotomy underlies our most fundamental assumptions about the nature and purpose of thought and the agendas we design for it.

Ron: Time out! I can't follow. How do you guys earn a living talking like this?

Sarah: I like it. It ties in what we're doing with things people have wrestled with throughout history. After all, we're all one or two paychecks away from panic anyway.

Michael: Not me. My panic is one or two paychecks ahead. But right, my first reaction is "Oh, bleep, why is this happening. Then I look over to Ryanza so calm and collected..."

Ryanza: And irritated. It's like, I don't have enough to do without this new disaster. And it's not only disaster. When I got the go-ahead on my project, I was waking up in the middle of the night in a cold sweat, thinking, 'What have I gotten myself into?'

Richard: You okay with this Ron? Good. Lets take this further. Both linear and systems approaches to problem solving share the "imperial" view of thought. Linear is often called "rational" and it can be useful. We find some version of it in most management texts. Define problem. Collect data. Perhaps spend time framing it in different ways. Deal with objections. Prioritize. Implement. Assess, and so on, some more rigid than others. Systems thinking is more complex, modeled more on the web or network than the ladder of logic. Situations are seen as shifting, and each symptom or event is acknowledged as having multiple causes and implications. Uncertainty is viewed as an integral part of the system and even of the outcomes. Systems thinking is more holistic in that one seeks explanations throughout the system, since we know that an event over in Department A may be felt throughout the system in unexpected ways. But linear and systems thinking share certain assumptions, an ideology, if you will, about the direction and purpose of thought.

In our tradition, thinking literally settles wild or disturbed areas of reality. Some perspectives might claim that there is no reality until a system of thought has been imposed upon an otherwise chaotic swirl – of interference patterns, perhaps? Rational thought has a magnificent ability to increase predictability while alleviating our panic in the face of the unknown. However, the rational is frequently viewed as opposed to the emotional, which is a fallacy: the two are actually mutually dependent, perhaps inseparable to the point that they do not deserve two separate categories. (This despite the systems thinkings' acknowledgement of uncertainty as a critical element in any situation).

Therefore, we respond to panic by suppressing or overpowering it, relying on certain logical axioms or assumptions. We try to overwhelm it with reassurance, telling ourselves: "Let's learn the rules...It's all very logical...Think positively..." and so forth. But there is a cost to this approach.

Janet: Panic is a learning tool provided by nature to enhance our thought processes. Panic confronts us with uncomfortable truths about ourselves and our relationship to the situation. Suppressing panic is equivalent to burying an incredibly rich data source. As an adrenalized state, panic heightens our self-perceptions as well as our view of external situations. Ideas and feelings can surface and because we are in a panic, we will grasp at them because we know we need help. As we grow more comfortable with panic, we are better able to navigate the disorder inherent in all situations. Every situation is essentially disordered, for nothing compels it to fit our expectations or needs. When we do not impose our own perspective on a situation, we are more likely to confront it on its own terms. And when we acknowledge our panic, we see even more deeply into it. Our fears tell us what to be most concerned with, they're an infallible guide to the deepest flaws in our problem solving methods and our solutions. We can see the component parts, so to speak, the driving mechanisms of a situation, most clearly at these times. Can you see any benefits to this?

Ron: At last, I can relate. When I'm rock climbing, I know underneath it all that I'm terrified – but that's the source of my concentration. I see every fingerhold with absolute clarity –I see with my body – exactly when I need it most. Panic is also my warning system, and when I'm pre-warned, I have more time to respond and adapt and develop solutions.

Ryanza: I see it from another perspective. When I started that project I mentioned before, people came up to me with all sorts of advice. "This is what we did back in '92...Talk to so and so first...Of course you're going to sub-contract..." On one level, I was confident. On another, I was panicking and all the advice, however well-meant, seemed, frankly, like irrelevant blather. It was like, "Just let me focus, people!" And I did, and it worked.

Michael: Yes. We usually ignore the "depth data" – hidden motivations and agendas, old assumptions, people's irrational stakes in a given way of doing things. But also the positive stuff: our own gut responses and intuitions, or sometimes just some hidden clue that can tell us how to proceed. When you're in a panic, you don't care about what everyone else says will work – you fall back on what you trust most, which hopefully is your own intuition and resources.

Janet: Exactly. Panic opens the door to our deeper intuitions. We already know most of what we need about any situation that arises, but we don't always access solutions efficiently or even coherently. The same holds true for organizations. Enormous amounts of insight, data, vision, and solutions are embedded in the "white noise" that comprises so much of daily organizational life: old solutions no one references anymore, moldy old patents whose implications were never followed through, off-the-cuff observations at the water cooler, unexpressed ideas, instinctive knowledge – a version of "intellectual capital".

As Jerry Hirshberg [1998] writes, corporations often "failed to recognize the seeds of homegrown innovation all around them" [p. 21]. Whether within ourselves as individuals or within organizations, this untapped data has a holographic aspect. Aiming the right "beam" at it can activate a great deal of latent winning solutions. Too many of the mental pieces are buried in our minds, are simply not part of our thinking. Panic is like a laser scanning the swirling mass of interference patterns.

Let's try an exercise using Panic. I'd like you all to think about the state of the company. Declining profits and stock price. Threat to your jobs. The competition. Sense of drift. How does that make you feel? The following visualization will help you access your feelings about current conditions.

POST-PANIC DISCUSSION

Janet: Responses to the activity?

Sarah: I saw the whole company being in panic mode since long before the problems hit. We lurched along without ever reflecting about where we were going. As long as we made money, we called the contingencies we wired together "strategic planning", but really it was all panic. Panic about being caught with our pants down, about being failures, about not pleasing our customers or our bosses. Now, when times are tough, we're still panicking but without having profitability to fall back on as a support.

Ryanza: We pave over the panic with results but now the pavement's cracking and the weeds are coming through. We never train ourselves to think reflectively and holistically about the market environment or our products' inherent possibilities.

Michael: I realized I don't really believe in our products. Oh, they're good and I sure don't want to do away with computers. But somehow we've lost sight of why we went into this business in the first place. You know, the fascination with the machine, the vision of what it can do for the world. Maybe we never had it.

Ron: Or maybe it's never been cultivated on a company-wide basis. I think if you know where you're going, not just in terms of customer service or quality, but really in terms of how you're affecting the world, you're less likely to feel panic or despair.

Janet: It sounds as though panic opened up your perceptions to a multi-lensed diagnosis of the company's problems. You're describing the current reality less in terms of operational issues and more in terms of overall direction and purpose.

Richard: But I also hear something else. You seem to be questioning the very structure of how ideas are processed, even questioning whether there is a structure. What we'll be working towards is a way of transforming this unfocused, incoherent approach to organizational thinking into a flexible system that operates, perhaps, like the brain itself: freedom within the coherency of an implicit order.

Ron: Hmm, I'll have to remember that one.

LONG EXPOSURE

Janet: Perhaps our next method, Long Exposure, will speak to what Richard just said. Long Exposure refers to maintaining the focus of one's attention on the early "positions" or forms of a situation or concept. How did emergent patterns influence growth? Did these patterns maintain their influence as levels of complexity accrued around them? The great 17th century mathematician, Fermat, in effect used long exposure by returning to ancient Greek geometry: "his hobby –his passion – was to try to generalize the work of the ancients and to find new beauty in it." [Aczel, 1997, p. 5]

Richard: That knowledge grows incrementally is perhaps the first axiom of modern education, thought, and problem solving. We move along the level of complexity of such disciplines as math, psychology or physics by incorporating earlier learning in ways that obscure the elegance and power of a discipline's fundamental patterns and laws. We develop and implement strategies in business or war without questioning the basic axioms or assumptions that govern our choices.

Janet and I developed Long Exposure because of our mutual interest in strategic games: chess, go, and backgammon, specifically. To understand how a chess game stood at move 30, or a go game at move 150, we needed to leave the shutter open, so to speak, and keep earlier positions current in our minds. In other words, chessplayers usually focus on the position as it stands at move 30, not how it got there. But looking at the sequential series in a synchronistic way transforms your view of the game. It may not matter to a grandmaster; we think they already have that kind of knowledge implicit in their view of the board. But to someone seeking to improve their game, this method can be invaluable. So we went out and bought ten sets of each game and set up them to reflect the position after every few moves, so they revealed in detail how a particular game unfolded.

Janet: Why don't we break into groups, and experiment with Long Exposure.

LONG EXPOSURE POST-ACTIVITY DISCUSSION

Michael: Like Richard asked, I started writing about a metaphor I chose for the early stages of my current project. The metaphor was the Rosetta Stone. But I kept thinking about the origins of computers. Then I flashed onto the beginning of life and thought about invertebrates, with their single channel of clustered nerve cells. Simply a column, an elegant, efficient way to transmit energy, complete with the first primitive branches delivering impulses to the outskirts of the organism. Eventually, animals built up a protective layer of membrane around the channel which, after a few eons, became the spinal cord, while the branches became limbs, and so on.

Now we've got parallel processing and multi-level networks. What if during all this rapid high-tech evolution we've somehow missed something, either organizationally, in terms of marketing, or about the technology itself? So I thought: what is the spinal cord, what is the bone that protects the core technology and gives it its shape but also its rigidity? And really where we're going now is to get rid of that rigidity in the technology. But has our notion of marketing kept up with that idea? Or our view of the organization, and I don't mean the "virtual organization". I mean an organization of people working together but with a really fluid and energetic view of technology's future.

Ron: As usual, I only got about half of what Michael said. But I think I got it anyway. If you go back in time, and see how A, B, C led to D, you're really going back from D to C to B to A. In effect, you're reversing causal loops and unfolding the situation from the inside out. So let's say we start with Panic and instead of looking at things logically, we look at them in whatever sequence our emotions dictate. Then we examine where we're at in terms of Long Exposure and map our way back in time, reversing the film, so to speak. By this time, I bet we know the situation and our own relationship to it very thoroughly, and dynamically as well.

Ryanza: As above, so below. Every organization eventually reflects the character of its core technology. It's always been that way. Our technology is becoming so advanced that ideas become translated into productive activity almost immediately. So the organization has to operate more by ideas than by formal structures.

Ron: Yeah, so we're all connected by e-mail and Notes. What else is new?

Ryanza: That's not what I mean, Ron. We've still got basically the same titles someone or other held 10 years ago, give or take a few syllables. John and Frank are a lot more open than other execs we've had, but still, we're not free enough. I like Michael's idea of dropping the spinal cord. Let's get out of hardware altogether. That's the spinal cord.

Ron: Hardware's our bread and butter!

Michael: And will it be in five years? Will there even be hardware a decade from now?

Janet (entering the room): How we doing?

Sarah: Well, it's kind of amorphous. Interesting, though. We're disagreeing now. Can you sum up for us some of the benefits of Long Exposure?

Janet: Just as leaving a camera shutter open for a long time reveals the pattern and rhythm of night-time traffic or the path of the moon, viewing the various stages of a situation as it develops reveals its governing rhythms. We can thus more easily identify key shifts in direction or objectives, and hence more fully understand the underlying themes of a situation. Such themes are embedded in the core assumptions, goals, motives, and strategies that drive an event or the formative stages of a given situation. We think Long Exposure also develops scenario-oriented habits of thought, because it trains us to treat ideas as complex unfoldings along multiple, ever-generating paths.

Sarah: Rhythm and timing. I use them to manage. Where's my journal? Here's something Billy Strayhorn said about Duke Ellington that has always inspired me as a manager. "'Watching him on the bandstand, the listener might think that his movements are stock ones used by everyone in front of a band. However, the extremely alert may detect a flick of the finger that draws the sound he wants from a musician. By letting his men play naturally and relaxed, Ellington is able to probe the intricate recesses of their minds and find things not even the musicians knew were there.'" [Nisenson, 1997, p. 93].

Michael: That's management at its best. Getting there requires awareness of the total environment. But I also see Long Exposure as a rigorous analytic tool to carefully, rationally map out the forces that govern the formation of a problem, discipline, or situation.

Richard: Now let's work with a few different methods at once: Miming the Master, Rotation, Flash Forward, and Brain Mapping. Actually, each of you four will go with four other groups to work with one of these techniques. Then we'll reconvene for feedback.

FOUR MORE METHODS: POST-ACTIVITY DISCUSSION

Michael: Miming the Masters worked for me once when I found myself on horseback, an event I managed to avoid for most of my life. I realized that the only way I would survive was to imagine myself a hussar racing to some obscure engagement in the bogs of central Europe hundreds of years ago. The self-deception worked. Immediately my back straightened, my sense of command over the horse soared, and my grip on the reins became more purposeful. I still bounced all over the saddle but I did keep my seat and thoroughly enjoyed the ride.

Richard: In effect, your mind created an ideal state by representing it in the form of an image – the cavalry officer in total command of his mount. Your panic at being on a horse made you sufficiently receptive to the image so that you programmed your body to fit the image. Miming the Masters is not only a matter of physical imitation, but involves an immersion in another's mentality [Caillois, 1979]. Mimicry is one of the key ways we learn. Babies learn how to speak, children to swing a bat or climb a tree, adolescents to act like adults, and adults to adapt to a new environment, by mimicking the gestures of others. In fact, we learn how to think by incorporating others' habits of mind into our own. Salient in all this mimickry is the notion of pretending, of entering into another's reality "as if" it is one's own.

Michael: As I understood it, Miming the Masters may require only a simple prod, such as "What will it take to make this idea brilliant?" It's a way of pushing yourself beyond your usual frames of thought. Or it may be require donning a psychological mask, so to speak, that helps us submerge ourselves in a high-achievement attitude. How does a Capablanca in chess, a Pele, a Jane Austen, a Martin Luther King Jr., a Thomas Edison, or an admired strategic thinker operate when at their peak? It is obviously limited by our own skills and by our understanding of another's mind. But without pretending, we would be incapable of learning. The idealized notion of a "master" draws us, as learners, beyond our own habits and self-perceived limitations. It also lends itself well to extended simulations.

Ryanza: Rotation refes to "rotating" a situation to view it from different perspectives. Our facilitator was a professor who described using Rotation in a course called "Seven Theories of Human Nature".[1] Each week students read from one of seven theories. However, the entire class does not read the same theory each week. Instead, the teacher divides the class into three groups. Throughout the course, for each assignment, the three groups each read a different theorist, rotating until all seven are read. In each weekly meeting, the class focuses on the three theorists read for that day. However, the experience of each group is different for each theory. The second group to read Freud does so having previously heard about – and discussed –his ideas. By the time the third group reads Freud, they already grasp the main elements of his thought. Thus, the experience of reading is transformed, which also happens to reinforce work done on strategic reading earlier in the program. The class becomes a learning lab as well as a course on human nature. The multiple layering of reading and discussion, and analyzing theories when students are at different stages in their understanding of each, result in accelerated learning that students find very enjoyable and enduring.

So I immediately thought, why not run projects the same way? Stagger people's entry into the project. After one group has been working on it for a month, bring in another to view it fresh and then bring the two groups together. Keep feeding in new perspectives by having people with all sorts of expertise respond to the results of onworking groups.

Ron: As long as you don't get rid of the hardware. My group did Flash Forward, which seems truly holographic. Again, the inspiration seems to be chess. Richard facilitated and told a story about Capablanca, the great Cuban world champion of the 1920's and 1930's. Seems a bunch of masters were analyzing where a position was headed. Capablanca glanced at the board and simply placed the pieces where they would be about 10 moves later. Just put them there, didn't even play out the moves.

Richard: Like Ron said, the effect is holographic. The mind flashes forward to a completely resolved image of the solution. If we can bypass the step-by-step sequencing that marks most of our mental algorithms, and train ourselves to trigger the fully formed solution that our unconscious minds often already possess, we would greatly enhance our ability to think.

Janet: Our assumption is that our unconscious minds are giant processors that we usually don't access. Imagine a computer with 32 megs of RAM and 3.1 gygabites of storage –almost 100 times the amount of active RAM. The RAM is the conscious mind. The storage is the unconscious. But, unlike a computer, the mind's 3.1 gigs of storage is actually an active processor of ideas. The key is accessing it. Or, to use the hologram metaphor, to apply the beam to the brain's interference patterns and generate the image, or solution, we need.

Ron: I liked it. We learned to skip ahead in our development sequence. The focus was what we imagined the final product would look like at its most "elegant and beautiful", as Richard put it. Richard, you mentioned the Greek idea of "logos", an inner template that guides the organic development of forms, a kind of theme at the core of every event, or its genetic code.

Richard: The Greeks had a saying: "as in the beginning, so in the end". Our minds know the solution path because the origins of a situation provide it with most of the data it requires. So the unconscious processor is already ahead of our conscious minds – we just don't know it.

Sarah: We used Brain Mapping, which is different from mind mapping. We actually visualized ourselves during peak experiences [Maslow, 1976] that we have had, feeling where in our heads the experience was being imaged. We felt we could actually locate the area that "lit up" during those experiences. The facilitator's notion is that when we want to operate at a peak level, we can focus on the part of our minds that we associate with that peak experience and achieve a high level of concentration and perception very quickly.

Ron: Were you really feeling a part of the brain, or was it just some sort of suggestion to the muscles of the skull?

Sarah: We asked that. Margaret, the facilitator said it didn't really matter, that whatever the feeling, the key was the feedback loop. When you focus on a specific part of your mind –or maybe skull – your mind would operate as it had during the experience. Margaret said this was only the initial stage of directing the mind's energies. Yogis, martial artists, and acupuncturists all use physical energies that western science does not or cannot acknowledge. It's intriguing to wonder how far we can carry this sort of skill and what it takes to develop it.

CONCLUSION

Richard: This ends our first day's work. I'd like to welcome John and Frank back. Our plan for the next four days is to build on this notion of holographic learning and problem solving, and to refine a set of techniques that can be integrated into organizational – or personal – life. The goal is to establish a problem solving culture that calls upon the strongest capacities of the human mind. To succeed at this, an organization eventually has to address issues of hierarchy, communication, long-term objectives, the quality of leadership and "followership", performance expectations and review, compensation, and shareholder relations. Thought and feeling drive everything. Ideas, creativity, panic, loyalty, desire –take your pick – in the end, organizations run on what's inside us. As Christopher Meyer [1998] states: "First, people are the most essential ingredient in any innovation...Second organization is more than just boxes on a chart – it channels energy, defines explicit and implicit operating norms, and provides infrastructure."

Ryanza: So if you change the basic approach to thought or problem solving, the organization has to change. If the flow of energy moves from a linear to parallel model, or even to what we're calling a holographic model, norms and infrastructure must adjust.

Ron: You need vision and leadership. It's got to be clear why we're going where we're going, and not simply because "We're in trouble, we've got to cut back", or "expand our market focus", or "change our technology."

Janet: Each one of the methods we have experimented with can be applied in a host of ways. Think about how to integrate each one into your work environment. We do not advocate bringing such approaches in on the whirlwind and throwing out the familiar culture. That just creates a third culture of chaos and resentment which does little justice to either what went before or the new approach. Rather, we suggest starting with small successes. Work with pilot groups. Use some of these techniques in selected contexts. And take your cues for organizational development from the shifts that the new methods generate.

John: It's clear to me, from my observations during the day, that if we really are going to shift our thinking in dramatic ways, we need a "meta-strategy" to guide us in implementing the shift itself.

Richard: One last thought of the day. Innovation is not simply about generating ideas. The mind does not exist separately from our feelings, and neither mind nor emotion exist independent of the body. Ideas imply product. Product implies action. Action implies implementation. And implementation presumably implies profit. We're not here to turn you into navel-gazers. At the same time, the habits of mind cultivated in modern organizations are insufficient to meeting current business needs and thus the norms and infrastructure of most modern organizations are similarly lacking. Where do we want to go? How do we get there? It comes down to how we think, how we feel. It starts here. Tomorrow we'll continue.

EPILOGUE

All have exited except John and Frank.

John: What do you think, Frank?

Frank: I don't know, John. A little out there. Hey John, did you ever see that play "Waiting for Godot"? Laura dragged me to see it last weekend at that new theater downtown.

John: We read it in college. Why?

Frank: Are we still waiting, John?

John: I don't know, Frank. Maybe Godot is a hologram. Or the stock price passing by on the tape. Maybe Roxon should go into lasers. Today may be a beginning. Let's see what tomorrow brings.

Frank: Yeah, tomorrow.

ENDNOTES

1. A course developed and taught by the author at Lesley College School of Management.

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CYBERGOGY AND ADULT LEARNING: A CASE RESEARCH STUDY USED AS A DECISION MAKING TOOL IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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Abstract

Cybergogy is a term coined by a participant in a course on adult learning. It refers to an act of teaching/learning using web-based technology. The participants in the course enrolled to learn about adult learning expecting the traditional lecture/discussion mode of instruction. The nature of the course taught in cyberspace forced them to develop a case study of themselves as adult learners. This was the basis for a case research study which is being used to make decisions about the content and method of teaching in the course and the implications for other courses in the program. The participant-developed case is now being used as a teaching tool in the required course on learning in adulthood. The course continues to be offered in cyberspace.

INTRODUCTION

In the traditional higher education classroom, courses in adult education are designed to utilize a variety of instructional strategies. The principles and practices of adult education indicate that these are appropriate ways of engaging adults in the teaching learning process. The use of case studies continues to grow as a way to teach problem based learning processes and adults find this to be valuable as it allows them to connect their learning experience to the course content. Even though the methodology is utilized the number of case research studies is limited in this field. Consequently adult educators use case studies from a variety of disciplines which have to be adjusted to the needs of the adult learner. This study reports the development of a case on learning in adulthood. The case was the outcome of a course which evolved into something somewhat different to what was initially intended by the instructor.

BACKGROUND

To assist the reader in understanding adult education as a field of study, some of the basic principles for effective practice are described here. It will be evident from this brief summary of the principles and practices that case study method is very appropriate to the teaching learning process in adult education. To further guide the reader the use of technology in the delivery of educational programs is briefly discussed. In addition, background is provided on the course, the instructor and the participants in this course which led to a case research study that was used for making decisions about the course and the way it is to be offered in the future. The case research study was never intended to be a course outcome. Because the case study became the major learning outcome, this study is significant for educators using cybergogy as a teaching tool.

ADULT EDUCATION

Adult education as a field of study has been in existence since the 1920's. It is an evolving field and in this time a set of accepted principles has been established that has guided adult educators in their practice. These principles are based on classes and programs in face-to-face educational settings where the physical interactions between the participants, the material and the instructor are used to strengthen the course and influence the learning outcomes. Adult learners bring individual experiences to the learning situation, are very involved in the learning process and want learning experiences to be relevant to their current situation. Face-to-face interaction tends to enhance the practices.

Brookfield [1986] defines six principles for effective practice that apply to the teaching-learning transaction, curriculum development and instructional design. Each of these principles is defined here. The participants in the course used these principles to reflect upon themselves as adult learners and the course and the way it was conducted. These principles were used as the framework for the case development.

It is important to recognize that these principles for effective practice are grounded in what the instructor as the facilitator of the learning knows or believes about adult learning. In light of this it is significant that we have paid respect to the adult learner in this study and given them the opportunity here to reflect upon and respond to these principles. The principles for effective practice [Brookfield, 1986] are:

Participation is voluntary. The decision to engage in learning is made by the student even though some external factors might precipitate the decision.

Mutual respect among participants. Participants in the learning process should feel valued as individuals and should demonstrate respect for other learners and the instructor and in turn expect the same respect from others.

Collaboration among participants and between participants and facilitator. Both the instructor and the learners collaborate in the learning process with roles changing among participants. The collaborative process exists through all aspects of the learning experience and continues to be discussed and negotiated.

Action and reflection. Praxis is placed at the heart of effective facilitation. Those involved in the learning process are continuously involved in doing, reflection, analysis, further doing, reflection and analysis. Doing includes cognitive activity as well as physical activity.

Critical reflection. The instructor aims to foster a spirit of critical reflection. "Through educational encounters, learners come to appreciate that values, beliefs, behaviors, and ideologies are culturally transmitted and that they are provisional and relative" [Brookfield, 1986, p.10].

Self-direction. The aim of facilitation is the nurturing of self-directed, empowered adults. Self-direction in learning is allowing the adult learner to take control of personal educational goal setting and establishing personal measures of achievement.

It should be noted that the principles were never questioned as the course commenced. Both the instructor and the participants felt the principles were "reliable truths" on which to base teaching and learning practices.

TECHNOLOGY AND THE TEACHING LEARNING PROCESS

The course was taught in cyberspace. Cyberspace in this context means the use of the World Wide Web to describe the course and deliver the content and as a communications tool for participants and the instructor. It meant that the course content was to be delivered in such a way that the instructor and participants are separated in time and space. In contemporary society, technology has become an established part of even the most basic aspects of our every day life. In education we find that technology is playing an increasing role in enhancing traditional delivery of classes. And now on an almost daily basis new systems, relying entirely on technology, are being developed to deliver classes, courses and programs.

We are now seeing advanced computer-based multimedia systems utilizing computer, audio, video and web technology used to deliver more and more classes and courses. These systems of delivery are quickly becoming accepted and even expected by the consumers of education in this country and around the world.

This rapidly expanding utilization of technology in delivering educational programs is not confined to the traditional educational system in the school, college or university classroom. Adult educators are also finding that by choice or necessity, they must utilize technology to enhance and modify delivery systems to accommodate adult learners who need and demand more options to be able to access educational programs.

Research has provided significant evidence about the value of distance education using electronic methods of delivery. Their results are not doubted and are the basis on which faculty members are willing to assume the risk of teaching adults using this method of delivery. There appears to be little research on the phenomenon that happens when technology is used to deliver either formal or non-formal educational programs to an adult learner, and the resulting behaviors of participants, instructors and support staff. It is not clear whether the established principles and practices of adult education are valid in technology supported programs.

THE COURSE, THE STUDENTS AND THE INSTRUCTOR

In the winter of 1997, 24 participants started out in a course to learn how adults learn. The course was called EDAF 577 Learning in Adulthood and was a required credit course offered in a graduate degree program in adult and higher education in the Woodring College of Education at Western Washington University, Bellingham, Washington, U.S.A. Western Washington University is a small comprehensive regional university in the north west Pacific state of Washington, about 100 kilometers south of Vancouver, Canada and 160 kilometers north of Seattle.

This was the first time the course was offered in cyberspace. It was also the first time a graduate course had been offered at Western Washington University utilizing web technology to this extent. It was offered as a pilot project.

The course objectives were for participants to:

- Identify significant physical, psychological, social and economic factors that impact adults as learners;
- Articulate basic learning and motivational theories and their application to adult learning;
- Describe ways in which adults learn and the factors related to motivation, participation and achievement; and
- Apply adult learning theory in the development of effective adult education programs.

The topics for the course evolved from these objectives and included the context and environment of adult learning, the adult learner and the learning process, adult development and learning, instructional techniques to promote adult learning, learning as a self-directed activity and the facilitation of adult learning in formal settings. Learning activities included face-to-face lecture/discussion meetings, asynchronous and synchronous conferencing in the "chat room" on the Internet and small group meetings.

In its traditional format the course ran for ten weeks with scheduled 4-hour weekly class meetings. In its cyberspace format the course was initially structured so that the class would meet face-to-face the first night to provide students with an introduction to the course as well as an orientation to the Internet and world wide web. The class was scheduled to meet face-to-face again for the final meeting of the course. As the course progressed through the ten weeks, additional face-to-face sessions were scheduled. In addition the students met face-to-face in small groups as well as on-line in group chat sessions.

A senior faculty member (a co-author of this paper) with over 30 years of professional and teaching experience in the field of adult education, in both formal and non-formal settings, was the instructor. It was on the initiative of the instructor that the course be offered in cyberspace rather than in its traditional format. The instructor who had extensive experience in distance learning instruction using predominately two-way audio and some video technology, had not previously taught in cyberspace and had limited exposure to the world wide web and associated technology.

The course was monitored by an adult educator (a co-author of this paper) external to Western Washington University. He bought experience in continuing education program planning and instructional development to the course. The monitor's role was to assist with establishing the course, advising the instructor on the use of the conferencing and chat facilities, setting protocol for conducting the on-line instruction, and observing the progress of the course via the web. He maintained contact with the instructor and debriefed with her on a regular basis throughout the quarter.

The participants came to the course with a variety of life and work experiences. The class included students from Canada and from the local native American population. The mean age of the students was 38 years in a range of 23 to 55 years of age. 85% of the students were identified as being employed, the majority being professionals, active in the community and fulfilling a number of life roles. The majority of the students had limited computer experience, generally nothing more than word processing skills. Some had a limited introduction to the World Wide Web through casual surfing of the web. Only five students considered themselves computer literate.

Assessment of learning in the course took several forms. Written assignments included an individual concept paper, journal reflections on the readings and class discussions and what would become known as the "big case" study. Much of this journal writing formed the basis for student contributions to the case study. Contributions to class discussion also formed part of the assessment. Two books on adult learning and development [Brookfield, 1986 and Merriam and Caffarella, 1995] were used as the required texts for the course.

PROBLEM SITUATION

The participants came to the first night of class expecting a traditionally taught course in the face-to-face lecture/discussion mode. There were rumors and a written statement that the course may be offered in cyberspace. Participants were introduced to the course and learned that it was to be taught in cyberspace. As the instructor provided a course overview, discussed the syllabus and described how the cyberspace instruction would occur, the participants began to express very mixed emotions; feelings of anticipation, anxiety, excitement, challenge, resistance and extreme frustration. They felt that they would be so involved in the process that they would not learn the content. The participants saw technology as a barrier to learning course content. They had preconceived notions about what content should be taught and how it should be taught and they felt more uncomfortable about their ability to learn in this manner.

A case study to be developed by the class in learning groups of five participants was to be the major portion of the student assessment in the course. The original focus of the assignment was the study of several chosen individuals and the adult learning experiences of those individuals related to the principles and practices of adult education as described in the literature. Through negotiation the assignment became one "big case" study, developed collaboratively by the class and the instructor, which described the learning experiences of the participants themselves as adult learners in a cyberspace class.

The participants used case research method to document the process of learning and what they saw as their learning outcomes; that is, instead of looking at others and applying the principals and practices, they examined themselves and questioned the principles and practices of adult learning. By examining themselves as the subjects, they were able to see that they could learn the content in spite of cyberspace. Forced to learn about their own learning they were in fact quite overwhelmed by the knowledge that they could see this was happening. Through self-study and reflection they understood the nature of learning in adulthood.

BIG CASE RESEARCH STUDY: PLAN OF ACTION

The participants agreed to conduct the research needed to develop one decision case on learning in adulthood utilizing themselves as the subjects. They worked in teams of five. Each team was to collect data on all members using the same questionnaire and methodology with the findings to form the basis for a single case. The participants decided to collect data on:

- cultural background and demographic background of each participant;
- quantitative data about each participant's individual learning style;
- quantitative data about each participant's stage of adult development and life-cycle phase;
- anecdotal data about interactive processes that deal with cognitive materials; that is each participant's interaction with the web asynchronous and synchronous conferencing facility by which content on adult

learning and development was presented and discussed; and

- anecdotal data on each participant's experiences with the technology.

Each team developed a mini-case based on the members of the team. These mini-cases were presented to the class in a retreat setting. In addition, each participant was permitted to provide further anecdotal information about the course in a video taped interview. The instructor was also interviewed for the case. These cases were then collapsed into the "big case" using the information from all the class participants.

The "big case" was written by one team assigned to do so by the class. All the data collected were used in the "big case". All participants had an opportunity to read the case and then in the last session of the course, in another retreat setting, the case was discussed with the instructor serving as the facilitator of the case analysis. This case analysis retreat was a five-hour discussion held off-campus.

The experiential learning process was used to analyze the case. Some of the questions the facilitator posed to the class in their analysis were:

What happened in this case?

What is the meaning of what you saw in this case?

How would you generalize the results of this case in your work as an adult educator in other situations with adults as learners?

In what ways would you apply this in your own situation for continuing professional development?

What recommendations would you make for strengthening the course in the future?

OUTCOMES

The participants used the principals for effective practice in adult education to analyze their learning experiences as adults in the course. A brief summary of their analysis is included here. The result of this study was a case research study that was used for making decisions about the course and its future direction. The results of this case are discussed together with some reflections on the use of case studies as a teaching tool in adult education and on the use of a case research study as a decision making tool in education.

ANALYSIS OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Participants started the course with mixed emotions; feelings of anticipation, anxiety, excitement, challenge, resistance and frustration. As the course progressed these feelings were magnified by technical problems, feelings of isolation and lack of community, feelings also felt by the instructor. They had come to learn "something new about adult education, but witnessed first hand the frustration and hopelessness of individuals who did not have control over their learning environment". In this situation they were now being forced to learn a process in addition to the content of the course.

The participants (and the instructor) did not let these problems and feelings of doubt overcome their ability and desire to learn. They developed a keen sense of self-direction in their learning. The instructor recognized that the learner was more in control of the learning and expressed openly to the class that she felt a loss of control over the content and the process. Trust needed to exist between the learner and the instructor. (How did she know they were attending to the learning or that someone else was doing the work?) One participant dropped the course on the first evening. Two others failed to complete the course for health reasons. However, the remaining participants were engaged in the course and learning at high levels, remained on task and completed all activities on time.

The technology "stratified" the learners creating inequality. Some participants felt shut out of the conversation due to the technology, time constraints and the nature of cyber-communication. Lack of understanding of adult learners by the technical support staff further isolated students. The technology screened the delivery. The system was interfering with the content and was an intrusion to learning. The participants felt they were not learning the content. The instructor pointed out that they were in fact "living" the content. Content and the process were so intertwined they could not be separated. Therefore, the course objectives were being met.

It was generally agreed by the class that the need for social interaction, communication and cohort connection must be achieved in a web-based course if adult learners are to voluntarily participate in these type of programs. The communications revolution is as much isolating individuals as it is bringing people closer to together. In this instance they were now losing the face-to-face context of learning to which they were accustomed. The loss of verbal and visible "emotion", so much a part of the her style, was a major obstacle for the instructor. Some participants were drawn to the course because of the teaching style and reputation of the instructor. Immediate feedback provided by face-to-face contact is essential and should be incorporated into any cyberclass.

Critical reflection was both enhanced by and limited by teaching in cyberspace. Both questions and responses by the participants and the instructor were less spontaneous but more thoughtful. As one participant said, "we broke out the book and designed a tight argument" for the issue under discussion. "In class we never had time to formulate our thoughts and present a thoughtful answer before it was time to move on to another issue or topic". However the instructor was troubled because her style of being able to be provide "first thought responses" that were on target and meaningful were lost, even though the reflective responses made through the conferencing facility were considered to be more logical and well constructed. Some participants felt that responses on-line could be misinterpreted as sarcastic or misunderstood. Voice intonation does not translate to written responses.

The participants did not wish to evaluate the course at its conclusion. They asked the instructor to delay evaluation for six months so they could be sufficiently removed from the experience to be objective. At the end of the course they felt frustrated at a very high level but felt more excited, eager and challenged as adult learners than at the beginning of the course. And they were satisfied that they had met the course objectives and learned the content.

In general the conclusion drawn from this limited experience is not that the espoused theories which serve as underpinnings for the current principles and practices of adult education are unsound for teaching adults in cyberspace. However, these principles should be revisited in further studies of web-based adult education programs. Such an activity might result in the development of a series of practices that are seen as evolving and dynamic.

Cybergogy (a term coined by the class) presents a human and technological dilemma in that it can enhance learning while at the same time intimidating and disempowering the adult learner. This experience identified the need for strengthening the knowledge and skills necessary for program planners who develop and conduct programs for adult learners, particularly when implementing new approaches to the delivery of those educational programs.

RESULTS AND REFLECTIONS

The participants wanted to learn about adult learning. The nature of the course using web-based technology forced them to engage in the development of a case research study. The entire course was designed for them to collect data for the development of the case and they were engaged in the learning while collecting data. This lead them to the conclusion that they had learned the content.

Learning in cyberspace and the use of computers still present barriers and challenges to the face-to-face teaching/learning experience. In this course two additional face-to-face sessions were added because of the frustration, sense of isolation and loss of "emotion" experienced by the participants AND the instructor.

The case became a decision making tool. Graduates of the course have taken responsibility for redesigning the course based on the case data so that it better accommodates adult learners. The case developed by the class will be used as a teaching tool in the course when it is taught in the winter quarter of 1998.

Evaluation of the course offered in the winter 1998 quarter will help the instructor determine the effectiveness of using the case research study as a decision making tool. At the time of writing this paper the quarter had just commenced and the current participants in the course appeared to be expressing less of the emotions of resistance, anxiety and frustration shown by the participants in the initial cyberspace course. The instructor too is more comfortable with the current structure of the course. The case research study thus far has proved effective as a decision making tool.

Reflection on the cyberspace course and the way in which it evolved into a case study of adult learners, provided evidence of how important it is to understand the adult as a leaner and to involve the adult learner in the planning process. Even though there are restrictions regarding content, timing, access and assessment placed upon the program developer in a formal educational setting such as a university course, developing a course without the adult learner in mind can prove fatal.

Use of the case study method in the way it was developed in this course gave the adult learner participants (including the instructor) the opportunity to explore the content and their own individual learning styles. It also gave the participants a sense of ownership in the course which is fundamental to their increased engagement in the learning. The importance of understanding why adults participate in learning and how adults learn is integral to planning adult and continuing education programs [Goody & Kozoll, 1995].

Further, the concept of "transfer of learning" must be taken into account in planning programs. Lauffer (1978) says that both retention of material and transfer of learning to other situations are strengthened when learning occurs in a meaningful context. The "big case" study which was the outcome of this course placed the participant's learning in context.

Experiential learning concepts [Kolb, 1984] consider the connection between experience and learning and contribute to this meaningful context. The case study in this course in particular, draws upon the experiences of the participants and links it inextricably to the participant's learning. By assuming both the roles of the subject and the researcher, individual participants immersed themselves in the experiential leaning cycle to use web-based technology to complete the requirements of the course. They then were able to step outside their role as learner of content and process to reflect on their experiences in the learning cycle, to analyze the process, to communicate their feelings to others and to apply their new learning to further course content.

Many of the principles which guide the development of programs in adult and continuing education appear to have been considered in using the case study method as a teaching tool in the course EDAF 577 Learning in Adulthood. Although this is evidence from only one program, it does indicate that the case study method is appropriate for use as a teaching method in adult education programs.

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MENTAL GOVERNANCE STYLES AND TEACHING/LEARNING ACTIVITIES IN THE BUSINESS CLASS

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Abstract

Bias in the class is always a problem; however, if students are disinterested and bored then bias may be occurring without your knowing. The mental governance style favored by the teacher may result in an unintended bias in favor of students that prefer the teacher's style. This article addresses the questions, What is mental governance? and What teaching techniques are associated with each mental governance style?

The mind carries out three mental governmental functions (legislative, executive, and judicial). "Mental self-government involves all three functions. However, in each person, one of the functions tends to be dominant. Thus, one of the hallmarks of thinking style is that it exhibits a legislative, an executive, or a judicial orientation."[Sternberg 1990]. Students' and professors' prefer one method of control and organization which is their dominant mental style. Teaching styles reflect the teacher's dominant mental style. Mental style here is defined as learning preference. These preferences should influence the teaching and learning techniques used in the classroom.

The legislative function focuses on planning, and formulating. It is typically a mental style that prefers doing through others. An example of this mental style is a classroom situation where students are presented with a scenario or case and ask to come up with alternatives courses of action. It would include teaching techniques such as role-playing, brainstorming, and case studies. Those who prefer this style enjoy dealing with problems that lack structure and encourage creativity.

The executive function is concerned with structured directed activities. It includes techniques such as lecture, memorization and use of facts, and preparation of a project. Those who prefer this style like order, structure, and guidelines. This style also prefers to learn through doing and using memorized facts.

The judgmental function focuses on comparison, and evaluation. This mental style favors learning through comparisons. Case studies where two courses of action are evaluated, or where students are asked to judge how one set of events led to another, or where actions are evaluated are examples of this style. Teaching techniques such as analyzing theories, evaluations of case studies, small group activities, and seminars. This group prefers to judging actions and situations.

More attention to the integration of all mental styles in the class would enhance all students. Teachers as well as students prefer one style more than another and this is often reflected in their teaching techniques. The education process is improved by broadening the use of mental styles in the classroom, instead of biasing classroom presentations, tests, and assignments to benefit students of our same mental style. "More important, when a mismatch exists between the preferred style of the teacher and that of a particular student, the student may frequently seem bored." [Sternberg 1990].

Students were asked to rate their preferences for each mental style of teaching and their preferences for various teaching techniques. If the preferred mental style can be predicted by student's preferences for teaching techniques, it would validate mental styles and indicate the teaching methods used with the various mental styles.

SAMPLING

The sample was composed of business students at a northeastern university. The sample was taken from accounting and marketing classes: however, the sample includes majors from all business disciplines. The sample's demographics are listed in Table 1.

TABLE 1
SAMPLE DEMOGRAPHICS

Sample Size: 123		
Sex:		
Male	52%	
Female	41.5%	
No answer	6.5%	
Age:		
Avg. age	25yrs	
Age range	20 to 51 yr.	
Majors:	**Number**	**Percentage**
Accounting	53	46.1%
Finance	2	1.7%
International Business	11	9.6%
Management and Organization	5	4.3%
Management	1	.9%
Information Systems	34	29.6%
Marketing	9	7.8%
Non-declared		

QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire was given to students asking their preferences for teaching/learning methods and styles of teaching and organizing information. Ways of organizing and thinking should favor different teaching methods. Students were given a self-administered questionnaire. The teaching/learning techniques were listed and students were directed to evaluate each technique on its' helpfulness using a five-point scale with 1 being most helpful to 5 being least helpful. Each mental teaching style was described and labeled. Then students were asked to rate their preference of the mental style --1 most preferred to 5 least preferred.

ANALYSIS

A simple frequency analysis for each mental style was run. Table 2 reflects this data.

TABLE 2
MENTAL STYLE PREFERENCES

	Legislative	Executive	Judicial
Preferred	54%	56%	61%
Neutral	20%	28%	26%
Not Preferred	26%	16%	13%

Judicial mental style seems to have the largest percentage of students that prefer it. An interesting difference is that the group that does not prefer the legislative style is 10% higher than the group that does not prefer the executive style and 13% higher than the group that does not prefer the judicial style.

Three regression models were run, using preferences for teaching style as dependent variables and helpfulness of teaching/learning techniques as independent variables. The positive betas indicate a positive relationship to the mental style. Negative betas indicate teaching/learning techniques that are negatively related to the mental style.

LEGISLATIVE MENTAL STYLE

Legislative mental style is represented by the planning process and the ability to imagine and design different scenarios. This is a style that requires students to go beyond what they know and to make plans, propose different solutions, and design solutions. This style requires elaboration of facts and creates uncertainty among students uncomfortable with abstract thought. This style is characterized by its lack of structure and use of creative techniques. This mental style had a larger percentage of students that did not prefer it. Over 26% of the sample did not like this style. The unstructured nature of this style is probably the culprit.

The model for Legislative mental style preference and teaching/learning methods and tools had an R square of .484. The ANOVA for the regression model was significant at .000.

It is expected that students that prefer a legislative mental style will prefer teaching/learning techniques such as brainstorming and role-playing. Techniques that are high in structure should not be as helpful as the less structured techniques.

TABLE 3
LEGISLATIVE MENTAL STYLES

	Stdized Beta	t	Significance
Team projects*	.254	2.442	.017
Films/tapes*	.195	1.928	.057
Role playing	.166	1.338	.185
Seminar	.145	1.318	.191
Self directed	.139	1.401	.165
Brainstorming	.125	1.074	.286
Small group discussions	.112	.937	.352
Assigned field observations	.106	.926	.357
Visiting/working with real businesses	.098	.897	.373
Analysis of theories	.072	.680	.499
Reading assignments	.071	.764	.447
Student presentations	.043	.388	.699
Blackboard and overhead	.035	.323	.747
Hands on assignments	.010	.105	.917
VAX sessions	-.008	-.068	.946
Research projects	-.016	-.154	.878
Peer teaching	-.094	-.863	.390
Case studies	-.101	-1.037	.303
Lecture	-.146	-1.322	.190
Computer simulations*	-.193	-2.045	.044
Guest speakers*	-.245	-2.009	.048

Lecture, case studies, computer simulations, peer teaching, guest speakers, research projects, and VAX sessions have negative betas indicating a negative relationship to legislative mental styles. Most of these techniques require a high degree of organization and structure.

The legislative style is a mental planning and designing style that prefers to operate in a less structured environment. Brainstorming, role playing, reading assignments, hands on exercises, blackboard/overhead, small group discussions, films/tapes, self directed, seminar, student presentations, team projects, assigned field observations, and visiting/working with real businesses were positively related to the legislative mental style. These techniques call for the students to use their minds to elaborate, plan activities, and use their own creativity. Blackboards and overheads can be used by a variety of mental styles.

Only four techniques had betas with significant t-values. These were computer simulations, films/tapes, guest speakers, and team projects. Of these computer simulations that are very structured and guest speakers that do not allow students to elaborate are negatively related to the legislative style. Films and tapes about class topics and team projects that are planned by the teams are positively related to the legislative style. Brainstorming and role-playing are also positively related to the legislative mental style with relatively large non-significant betas. These support the relationship between methods and a preference for the legislative mental style.

Legislative mental styles were preferred by 54% of the sample respondents. While this is a respectable percentage, the legislative style was not preferred by more than a quarter (26%) of the student respondents. It requires imagination and elaboration and is reflected by more non-traditional teaching methods with little structure.

EXECUTIVE MENTAL STYLE

An executive mental style is factual and well organized; it often focuses on recall and memorization. Typical executive mental styles are reflected in many classical teaching techniques, lectures, memorization of facts, and preparation of reports. This mental style is also characterized by action. Students that prefer this style like to learn by doing and applying knowledge in real life situations.

The model for executive mental style preference and teaching/learning methods and tools had an R square of .298. The ANOVA for the regression model was significant at .047. The results are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4
EXECUTIVE MENTAL STYLES

	Stdized Beta	t	Significance
Lecture	.232	1.799	.076
Reading assignments	.161	1.493	.139
Blackboard and overhead	.139	1.093	.278
Guest speakers	.135	.949	.345
Team projects	.126	1.039	.302
Brainstorming	.110	.806	.423
Student presentations	.107	.825	.412
Visiting/working with real businesses	.099	.778	.439
Case studies	.098	.865	.390
Peer teaching	.060	.470	.640
Research projects	.041	.338	.736
Self directed	.016	.136	.892
VAX sessions	-.032	-.243	.808
Computer simulations	-.062	-.566	.573
Films/tapes	-.063	-.531	.597
Hands on assignments	-.078	-.700	.486
Assigned field observations	-.087	-.648	.519
Analysis of theories	-.103	-.829	.409
Role playing	-.106	-.735	.466
Seminar	-.166	-1.297	.198
Small group discussions*	-.276	-1.984	.051

Role-playing, hands on exercises, small group discussions, analysis of theories, simulations, films/tapes, seminar, research projects, and VAX sessions all have negative beta relationships to executive mental style. Although hands on exercises, research projects and VAX session are methods that require the students to preform activities they do not necessarily require that students interact with others. Only small group discussions had a significant but negative beta. Small group discussion is a method characterized by minimal structure and executive mental styles like structure.

Lecture, case studies, brainstorming, reading the book, blackboards/overheads, self directed, peer teaching, group discussions, guest speakers, student presentations, and visiting/working with real businesses all have positive beta relationships to executive mental style. These results indicate that the most common teaching methods are positively associated with the executive mental style. This style also lends itself to business applications where the bottom line depends on implementation and action such as working with real businesses and making presentations.

JUDICIAL MENTAL STYLE

The Judicial mental style is focused on comparison and evaluation. It is a judgmental style. Typical teaching activities would be comparisons, sequencing, and evaluating. Case studies would be one of the major teaching techniques this mental style uses.

Sixty one percent of the sample preferred and thirteen percent did not prefer the judicial style. The R Square was .288 for the judicial model. The ANOVA for the model was significant at .064.

TABLE 5
JUDICIAL MENTAL STYLES

	Stdized Beta	t	Significance
Computer simulations*	.299	2.698	.008
Seminar*	.296	2.292	.024
Case studies	.211	1.849	.068
Peer teaching	.124	.965	.338
Brainstorming	.114	.834	.407
Small group discussions	.101	.717	.475
Visiting/working with real businesses	.101	.788	.433
Role playing	.085	.584	.561
Student presentations	.079	.605	.547
Reading assignments	.019	.172	.864
Films/tapes	-.033	-.276	.783
Lecture	-.052	-.398	.692
Guest speakers	-.057	-.395	.694
Hands on assignments	-.068	-.609	.544
Team projects	-.071	-.583	.562
Research projects	-.079	-.643	.522
VAX sessions	-.095	-.718	.475
Assigned field observations	-.102	-.759	.454
Self directed	-.144	-1.231	.222
Blackboard and overhead	-.229	-1.790	.077
Analysis of theories*	-.318	-2.542	.013

Lecture, hands on exercises, blackboard/overhead, analysis of theories, films/tapes, self directed, guest speakers, team projects, research projects, VAX sessions, and assigned field observations had negative betas. These activities do not usually exhibit a high need for the student to make judgments.

Case studies, brainstorming, role playing, reading assignments, small group discussions, computer simulations, seminars, peer teaching, student presentations, and visiting/working with real businesses had positive betas in regard to the judicial style.

Analysis of theories, computer simulations and seminars had betas that were with significant at .05. Computer simulations and seminars had positive relationships to the judicial mental style. These techniques often involve choosing between alternatives and comparing and contrasting ideas. Case studies were significance at .068 and blackboards and overhead were significant at .077. Cases call for students to evaluate activities and decisions. Blackboards and overheads are useful for illustrating evaluations and comparisons.

The judicial mental style was preferred by a larger percent of the sample than the other methods. It was also the mental style that had the smallest percent of students that did not prefer it. This method requires students to evaluate and judge. It does not require actively working on a project or paper.

CONCLUSIONS

There seems to be a relationship between teaching methods and mental styles. However, the model predicting legislative style explained almost twice the variance of the other two models. It also had the largest percentage of students that did not prefer it. The teaching methods betas reflected the unstructured and creative nature of the legislative mental style.

The other models predicted half the variance of the legislative style. They also reflected teaching methods that logically related to the mental style preference. This illustrates a preference for teaching techniques that reflect preferred mental governance style.

Specifics of this study relate to one university and do not depict the application of these methods at other universities. The students were asked which methods they found most helpful and which mental style of teaching they preferred. Although the models were significant, they only accounted for some of the variance and other factors must be considered in developing methods for the classroom. Other factor such as similarity of teacher and student, subject matter, intelligence of the student, and experience of the professor might account for some of the variance that is missing in this analysis. Factors such as the enthusiasm of the teacher, subject matter, and grading methods might also be added to complete the analysis. However, there is evidence that certain teaching techniques lend themselves to different mental styles. The classroom experience should try to provide learning experiences for all mental types and that do not bias the class in favor of one mental style.

It is common for students and teachers to exploit their preferred styles. If you find that students become bored or do not pay attention then it might be time to look at the mental style you are using in your classes. Varying teaching styles protects against bias in the class and makes for a more complete view of the world.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CASE STUDIES AND EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING IN SELECTED MARKETING AND COMMUNICATIONS COURSES

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Abstract

We describe two extended student projects that use case study methods, experiential learning, and secondary research. By simulating "real world" audiences and problem-solving techniques in classroom activities, students are better prepared for assignments with their cooperative employers. These projects also help keep the instructors informed about current issues in the workplace and the world.

BACKGROUND

Experiential learning is a fundamental aspect of Kettering University. Students are required to have a cooperative employer who pays them for full-time work in their major area during their work terms; they alternate 12 weeks on-campus study with 12 week work terms for a five-year period. This not only gives them extensive hands-on experience; it gives us extensive material for case study analysis on an ongoing basis.

We are in a multi-disciplinary department where we teach a wide variety of courses in business and industrial management. In our marketing and communications courses, we use case studies that require our students to reflect upon their work-term experiences and draw parallels between their experiences and the classroom examples; at the same time, we require them to conduct extensive research about some other "real world" situation.

In an introductory oral and written communications course, about three-fourths of the students come to the classroom with substantial work experience for their age. We try to cultivate in them a habit of observing and analyzing all elements of their work environment including such diverse areas as ethics, the environment, leadership styles, nonverbal communication, and electronic mail policies. Students are encouraged to develop an interest in one of these areas and conduct research about that area with groups of two or three other students who have similar interests. This then becomes the basis for learning how to write various types of business documents (proposals, progress reports, feasibility studies, memos of transmittal, etc.). At the end of the course, they present their findings in a formal oral presentation to their classmates. They use visual aids in their presentations and supply handouts that show the sources of the information which provides the basis for their reports. By following this curriculum, students achieve a sophisticated sense of audience and a mature voice in their documents, both of which are normally difficult to achieve in a short time using more traditional methods.

In the senior level International Business course, all of the students have had at least eighteen months of corporate experience. Since their experience, in most cases, has not been in the international arena, the course is structured so that they have the opportunity to gain hands-on experience with making international decisions pertaining to a specific country and their own corporate employer. The entire course is a case study with the problem for each student being "Should my corporate sponsor begin to do business in my selected country?" As the course material is presented and discussed, students research the topic as it pertains to their country or corporate employer. When appropriate, the students use their specific research findings as examples for in-class discussions. At the end of the course, each student presents his or her case study solution to the class, elaborating on the solution and its rationale. This type of case study method allows the student to gain hands-on experience in problem solving via research and analytical decision making in an area where they do not have experience. It also prepares them to be a relevant player in the international arena.

PART ONE: OVERVIEW OF THE COMMUNICATION UNIT

The following figure gives a brief overview of the goals and outcomes of the communication unit.

FIGURE 1
OUTLINE OF COMMUNICATIONS UNIT

Goals
- To learn basic team-building skills, decision-making, planning, and task analysis
- To achieve a broad understanding of business goals and competition
- To learn basic research methods and useful sources of information
- To learn the basics of summary, paraphrase, quoting from sources, and documentation of research
- To learn basic skills of visual rhetoric: format, layout, graphics, readability
- To create a realistic context for written and oral communication with particular focus on audience
- To achieve an understanding of a particular segment of business practices through team projects
- To achieve a broader view of business practices from other team presentations

Expected Outcomes:
- A series of memos and a research-based report, using the context created by individual teams
- A clear understanding of audience, purpose, and voice in written and oral communication
- A formal oral presentation, using visual aids and research data

Welcomed and/or Unexpected Outcomes:
- An understanding of individual strengths and how one works in teams
- A deeper understanding of ethical and environmental issues in business
- Some understanding of the complexity of cross-cultural issues in business
- An understanding of entrepreneurial decision-making and risk-taking

Following is Figure 2, which gives an overview of the assignment sequence in the communications unit.

FIGURE 2
SEQUENCE OF ASSIGNMENTS

Introduce Hoover Profiles
Choose Groups
Library Tour
Assignment Memo
(to instructor)

Progress Report
(to team members)

Task Analysis
Memo of Transmittal

Executive Summary
Report, including References and Graphics
(last 3 items addressed to fictitious supervisor in workplace)

For several years, I have been developing a series of assignments in business communications courses that I have taught. This approach to teaching evolved from several personal goals. One of the reasons I love to teach writing and communications is that I never teach the same class twice. By constantly modifying assignments, I am able to help students achieve basic goals while I continually learn new information and approaches to teaching. In the past few years, through student research projects, I have learned about the engineering problems involved in custom wheelchair design, the safety of roller coasters, water treatment facilities in Mexico, sonar technology and how it is used in the exploration for underwater oil fields, the popularity of bottled coffee products, safety in the meat industry, business policies about drug users, benefits policies for domestic partners, and everything I ever wanted to know about airbags, electric cars, and solar-powered batteries (one of our university's specialties is automotive engineering).

Another reason this assignment sequence works well for me is that, after years of feedback from many student evaluations and some help from a self-inflicted Myers Briggs analysis [Angelo; Lawrence], I recognize that my strengths lie in helping students discover their interests, brainstorm the possibilities, and think about how today's actions create their futures. I am also very good at facilitating healthy group interactions, helping to resolve conflicts, and remembering to have fun. I tell students repeatedly that if it's not fun, it's not worth doing. They have enough sources of anxiety in our university's demanding curriculum, so they should have at least one class that is a joy to attend. I cannot make that true for every student, but I feel obligated to try.

Figure I gives a brief overview of the assignment sequence, its goals, and projected outcomes. This series of assignments is usually taught in the second half of the first undergraduate course, but I have also used a variation of this sequence in a cross-disciplinary master's level course that unexpectedly resulted in students establishing several small businesses.

Recently, I have been introducing the unit by passing out a number of business profiles that I have printed from the Hoovers website [<http://www.hoovers.com>]. The site offers several free samples that show a company's history, profile, competitors, subsidiaries, directors, and financial standing. Many first-year students have never seen documents of this sort before. It is an awakening to learn that a tobacco company may own companies that produce food items commonly found in their pantries, that a German company that is over 100 years old publishes books in the U.S., owns American book clubs, and produces the CD's they listen to in their Walkmans, that some companies in the electronics industry were started by college friends, and that some entrepreneurs sell their successful businesses and start new ones because they enjoy the start-up process more than the success.

After discussing the Hoovers profiles, the next step in this assignment sequence is to find classmates with common interests. I allow about a week for students to discuss their common interests and form groups of three or four. Students may divide themselves according to fraternities, majors, or convenient meeting times; I seldom intervene in this process because they have spent about five weeks in the class by this time and have already interacted in several different small group activities. I meet with the groups at this point to brainstorm possibilities with them. Then, as a class, we go to the library for a guided tour that shows them where to find specific sources about business. The librarians help them navigate electronic databases, microfilm, and print.

The next assignment is for the group to write a memo to me that gives a profile of a particular company, on which they will base all remaining assignments. The profile includes the company's history, its main products or services, its financial standing, and information about its competitors. They practice summarizing and paraphrasing, and they learn to use academic documentation and include a page of references with their document.

Students then write a memo that outlines their research task. I vary this assignment, but it is usually in the form of a memo from their (fictitious) supervisor to them, explaining what needs to be done and when. In effect, they are writing their own assignment, and it gives me a chance to help them clarify goals, be realistic about what they can achieve in a given time, and divide up the task.

The next document students write is a progress report to other team members that gives a summary of individual research findings to date. This obligates students to give each other a true picture of how much research they have done and how valuable it is to the team. This often results in revising goals and changing focus. It is also another opportunity for me to assess each person's contribution to the team and foresee problems.

The next step is to set up a task analysis for the final report. They look at the research that needs to be done; they create a projected outline of the report; they assign the task of compiling a comprehensive list of references; they decide what types of graphics to include in the final report and who will be responsible for each; they decide who will complete the memo of transmittal, the executive summary, and all other elements of the report. I urge them to continue backing up all data on multiple disks and to rethink their purpose and audience in light of the data they have available. In the interest of creating the best document possible, given the research they have conducted to this point, I do allow slight shifts in purpose because of time constraints, explaining that real life would not allow them this flexibility.

At this point, they are ready to write a final report, following a model in their textbook. They also put together a final oral presentation for the class, which allows them to share their research and learn from their classmates. Most students are pleasantly surprised with the outcome and leave for their work terms confident that they can do useful research for their employers and produce competently written documents.

PART TWO: UNIT ON INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

Figure 3 outlines the course for the students.

The mission of this course in International Business is threefold:

1. To assist you (the student) in developing:
   - An awareness of global business concepts and
   - A sensitivity to global issues and their interrelationships so that you are able to analyze situations, solve problems, and make decisions.
2. To assist you (the student) in accepting the challenge of becoming an active learner.
3. To assist you (the student) in accepting the challenge of assisting in the success of everyone in the class

GOALS

To fulfill the mission, you will:

- gain an awareness of Global Business Patterns
- gain an awareness of the methods of conducting business in a foreign country
- gain an awareness of major investment and trade theories
- gain an awareness of the environmental systems which influence global business transactions
- gain a sensitivity to how the environmental systems influence global business
- gain an awareness of management activities which are relevant to Global Business
- gain a sensitivity to the factors which influence the differences between domestic and global business management activities
- begin to experiment with analyzing issues, solving problems, and making decisions in the global business context

FIGURE 3
COURSE OVERVIEW FOR STUDENTS

A Case Study
Introduction of Topic
Distribute Handouts
Discuss & Analyze Handouts
Students Research Topic(for own Country or Firm)

Students Write Analysis
(based on own research)
Students Share Analysis with Class
Students Give Analysis to Instructor

FIGURE 4
SEQUENCE OF ASSIGNMENTS IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

I was introduced to learning styles fifteen years ago when I first became acquainted with the Myers Briggs Type Indicator and all of the associated research. I began to realize that students in the courses I teach would have a much easier time learning the course content if I structured the courses to accommodate different types of learning styles.

One of the activities which assists in achieving the course mission and goals while at the same time involving different learning styles is a term-long project which is substituted for the course's comprehensive final exam. The objective of the project is to give the students an opportunity to analyze, solve problems and make decisions in a global business context while allowing each student to use his/her own learning style. Each student prepares an individual case that is unique; i.e., if there are twenty-five students in the class, there are twenty-five case studies using different countries and companies.

The framework for the individual case studies begins the first week of class when students are given the assignment of locating a foreign country where their co-op sponsor does not conduct business. If a student does not have a sponsor at this time, they select their previous co-op sponsor.

As the material is covered in class and the text, the students are assigned exercises that relate the course material to either the student's firm or selected country. The assignments consist of researching course topics as they pertain to the student's individual situation. After obtaining the information, students write a short (one-page) paper analyzing the information collected. The day the assignment is due, each student is asked to summarize his/her findings to the class. If the class is large, a few students are selected randomly to share their summary.

At the end of the course, students are assigned a three-to-four page paper answering the question: Is this a country where my firm could possibly do business? Why? If yes, what mode of entry seems reasonable at this time?

This case study project allows for experiential learning for many different learning styles. For those students who prefer structure, this method gives them structure by having all of the assignments explained in class and on paper so they know exactly what is expected. For those who like flexibility, the only requirement in selecting a country is that it be a country in which their sponsor does not do business; i.e., students can select a country merely for curiosity's sake. Those who like group work can work together when researching the material; i.e. they can share sources, Internet sites, etc. Those who like to work alone can do all of their writing and conduct the research by themselves. Global learners start with an overview at the beginning of the course, and the project follows a model that is logical to them. For those who are detail learners, the details of the assignment carry them through the project.

This case study not only takes into consideration different learning styles, but it also facilitates:

- students learning from other students
- faculty learning from students
- students learning from their employers
- employers learning from students

At the same time, it keeps me enthusiastic and knowledgeable about the world and business.

APPENDIX A
INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS COURSE OVERVIEW

Course Objective:

- gain an awareness of Global Business Patterns
- experiment with analyzing issues, solving problems, and making decisions in the global business context.

Course Topics:

Imports, Exports, Balance of Payments, US Foreign Direct Investment, and Foreign Direct Investment in the US

Classroom Experience:

The following handouts will be given to the students:

US Imports and Exports, selected years, 1970 - 1996
US Largest Suppliers – Trade Deficits – by Country, 1994 - 1996
US Largest Markets – Trade Surplus – by Country, 1994 - 1996
US Largest Suppliers – Trade Deficits – by Region, 1994 - 1996
US Largest Markets – Trade Surplus – by Region, 1994 - 1996
Foreign Direct Investment Methods - by Percent, 1994 - 1996
Foreign Direct Investment in the US, selected years, 1977-1996
Foreign Direct Investment in the US - by Country, 1994 – 1996
Foreign Direct Investment in the US - by Region, 1994 – 1996
US Foreign Direct Investment, selected years, 1977-1996
US Foreign Direct Investment - by Country, 1994 – 1996
US Foreign Direct Investment - by Region, 1994 – 1996
US Balance of Payments – 1994 -1996

In class, we analyze each of the handouts. The students participate in the analysis by answering questions. Some of the standard questions are:

- What is your first impression when you look at these numbers?
- What changes are reflected in the numbers?
- What is the percentage increase/decrease?
- Why do you think there was a change?

After we go through the first few handouts, students start volunteering information and asking me questions, such as:

- Why was there such an increase?
- What was the exchange rate at this time?
- Was there a change in a foreign government?
- What was going on in __________ at this time?
- Was there a change in U.S. policy?

The class becomes more and more proficient in analyzing the information as we go through the handouts.

Assignment

Each student is to research the import, exports, foreign direct investment and balance of payment for their chosen country. After locating the information and writing the implication paragraphs, students share with the class their results. If the class is large, only a selected few will share with the class for any given assignment.

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COLLABORATION ACROSS DISCIPLINES IN CASE PREPARATION

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Abstract

In recent years, business organizations and business education have undergone a period of intense examination. One result of this scrutiny has been a reduction of functional barriers in firms, and an increased emphasis on the importance of interdisciplinary concepts and practices in business education. This paper summarizes the collaboration among faculty in different business disciplines to develop cases. A new integrative curriculum, and the increased use of an interactive pedagogy that relied on case studies, made it imperative to develop a body of cases with an interdisciplinary framework. A case writing workshop provided the platform for this collaboration. The workshop and some of the results of that workshop are described. Finally, implications for other universities are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

During the last twenty years, American business organizations have been the object of intense scrutiny and reorganization. Increased competition from Japan and Europe forced corporations to re-evaluate their mode of business. As firms restructured to meet this competition, the emphasis was on improved product quality, customer satisfaction, and cost effectiveness. A key component was the continuous and systematic flow of information across managers, employees, and customers. To facilitate this flow of information, interactive management techniques such as Total Quality Management were introduced, organizational structures were flattened, and functional barriers were reduced

Business education has also undergone a period of intense examination and reorganization. This paper summarizes the collaboration among faculty in different business disciplines to develop cases as part of the development of a new undergraduate business degree program at the University of Puget Sound. In line with the reduction of functional barriers in business organizations, the objective was a program that provided more integration across the business disciplines, as well as with other disciplines across campus. The new curriculum also sought to improve the learning experience of our students by increased focus on the continuous flow of information between faculty and students via interactive teaching and learning. Strong emphasis was placed on the discussion and analysis of case studies, particularly those which pose problems involving multiple business disciplines and thus reflect the multifaceted problems encountered by business managers. In a case writing workshop, faculty across disciplines were able to collaborate on case preparation. This collaboration led to the development of several cross disciplinary cases, and will serve as a foundation for future case research.

AN INTEGRATED CURRICULUM

In 1993, the University of Puget Sound received a grant from the Andrew W. Mellon foundation to support the development of an interdisciplinary undergraduate business program founded on the liberal arts. As part of this process, a committee of corporate and community leaders met to define the skills needed not only to meet today's workplace challenges, but also to provide a foundation to deal with the uncertainty and complexity inherent in the future marketplace. The committee identified critical thinking, analysis, and written and oral communication as crucial to success and advancement within organizations. Another critical factor was the ability to deal with ambiguity and uncertainty in the analysis of complex problems.

One objective of the new curriculum was to provide more liberal arts breadth in our business curriculum. While this meant that the number of specific business requirements needed to be reduced, we could also rely on the university's Core curriculum as a good foundation in the liberal arts. Students choose from a set of courses in eleven Core areas, including communication, mathematical reasoning, international studies, historical perspective, humanistic perspective, and society. Another goal was to provide more integration across the functional areas of business. Leaders in both profit oriented organizations and non-profit entities are not faced with problems that can be neatly categorized as an accounting issue, or a management issue. Thus it was important to design the curriculum so that students were aware that a decision related to a single functional area, e.g. finance, would likely impact other areas such as marketing or management.

Three foundation courses were developed to achieve these objectives. One area in which there was an overlap across business disciplines was in the use of financial information in accounting and finance to make business decisions. A team-taught course, Financial Strategies and Controls, was designed to provide students with this background. Prior to taking this course, students are expected to have studied micro-economics and statistics. A second foundation course recognizes that the understanding of human behavior is central to management and marketing. Individuals' roles as consumers, employees, and leaders are examined in a second team-taught class: Theories of Organizations and Markets. This class also builds on theories of human and group behavior studied as part of the university's Core curriculum. The third foundation course studies the impact of the environments in which businesses operate. Environments of Business, also team-taught, includes topics commonly studied in business law, ethics, and international business, and augments material studied in two university Core areas, comparative values and international studies. These three foundation courses are required of all business majors and minors. Students then branch out into more advanced studies in one or more of the functional areas of business. Two courses in the humanities and social sciences that fit in the broader context of the student's educational and career goals are selected in consultation with his or her academic advisor. An integrative senior seminar is designed as a capstone class in which students analyze strategic business decision case studies that enable them to integrate the material covered in prior courses.

The curricular design process also involved the examination of pedagogical methods. The debate over these models has traditionally focused on what is commonly termed the teacher-centered, or lecture model, versus the active learning, or discussion model. Garvin [1991] notes that "The teacher-centered model sees information transfer as the primary goal of education; active-learning focuses on skill development, the integration and use of knowledge, and the cultivation of lifelong learning." It is the latter that best meets our objectives. This does not imply that the lecture mode would not be utilized, but that there would be an increased focus on a pedagogy that involved more active learning. Thus the new curriculum places a strong emphasis on analysis based on case studies, and the communication of that analysis. Students are often expected to work as part of a team, a procedure that is consistent with the increased emphasis on group processes in business organizations. The focus on active learning is intended to encourage students to think independently, to engage them more in the learning process, and to provide a focus for written and oral communication. It is this focus on critical thinking and effective communication that will shape their ability to meet future challenges.

CASE WRITING WORKSHOP

The integrative nature of the classes in the new curriculum, and the extensive use of the case method made it imperative to develop new teaching materials and to improve and strengthen interactive teaching modalities. The literature of cases directed to graduate study in business is extensive. However, there is a smaller body of cases suitable for undergraduate courses in business, particularly courses with a multi disciplinary framework. Patti and Tucker [1996] note the need for more interdisciplinary cases. Most cases deal with issues that are specific to a particular business discipline, such as marketing, with little or no attention as to how that marketing decision might affect other aspects of the organization. For example, the change in a pricing policy that is intended to increase market share could have a profound impact on such areas as: the financial needs of the firm, inventory control, production schedules, and human resource management.

In May 1997, a four day case writing workshop was held to develop a set of cases with our multi disciplinary curriculum in mind. The workshop was directed by Professor Paul A. Argenti, Director of Communication at the Amos Tuck School of Business, Dartmouth College. Participants included ten faculty members in the areas of accounting, business law and ethics, finance, human resource management, international business, marketing, public administration, and strategic management. Three cases were developed by teams of two faculty members: marketing and public administration; finance and strategy; and marketing and business law. Four cases were researched independently.

Prior to the workshop, participants interviewed local and regional business executives and community leaders to determine the relevant issues that would be covered in the case, and to initiate the collection of appropriate data, exhibits, and documents. In the first session of the workshop, several cases were discussed as if we were in a classroom environment. Those cases were then reevaluated to consider the components and features that make a good decision case. As field visits were scheduled for the following day, we also discussed the process and art of interviewing business contacts. After the actual interviews, each case scenario was presented to the group to consider the key pedagogical issues. The second session concluded with a discussion of the case writing process. Most of the drafting of the cases was done outside of the workshop. The workshop sessions focused on presenting the case to the group for discussion, and editing the cases. Each participant read and made editorial comments on all of the cases. This provided excellent feedback on such items as: what should be left out; when to quote; when to paraphrase; when to be somewhat obscure to encourage student discovery; how to identify the problem and setting of the case; how to build drama into the story; how to ensure that all information in the case is geared to a specific issue; what makes a good decision issue; whether or not the case excites discussion and controversy. As the discussion, revision, and editing process continued, we began to identify ideas and ways in which the case might fit into another topic or class. This allowed us to envision cases that might be discussed by students in several business classes. The basic framework would be familiar, but the addition of exhibits, or an altered emphasis would provide a new perspective. Students would thus be able to recognize the different ways of analyzing issues offered by various business disciplines and the linkages across those disciplines.

It is not usual to have such an opportunity for collaboration across business disciplines in case research. Leenders and Erskine [1989] note that the development of case research tends to be either performed by an individual faculty member, or by a faculty member aided by one or two research assistants. The collaborative process was an extremely valuable one, especially since it involved the collaboration of faculty across disciplines. One beneficial outcome was a body of cases that can be used in our team-taught multi disciplinary courses. This provided pedagogical materials that allowed students to synthesize theory from two separate disciplines such as accounting and finance in the analysis of a case problem. As we worked through the sessions in the workshop, it became evident that another benefit was a heightened awareness of approaches that could be used to integrate material not only within a team taught class, but also across classes. In an actual operational setting, seamless integration would require the synthesis of issues across multiple disciplines such as marketing, finance, accounting, and management. In business curricula, this is normally addressed in the capstone, or strategy class. Our goal was to develop cases that would allow students to study a decision problem from a variety of perspectives, not only in the capstone or strategy class, but also in other classes. Thus one case, Tires R Us [Dickson and Maxwell, 1997] describes a problem situation that can be analyzed from the viewpoint of the marketing issues in one class, and then revisited in another class to consider the legal issues. Another case, Mr. A's Video [Livingston and Fiegener, 1997] was written so that it could be used to address management issues in one of our foundation courses, and finance issues in a second foundation course. A more detailed version was also developed to address more complex strategic issues in our senior seminar. In our discussion sessions, it became evident that with the inclusion of more data, it could also be used in an accounting class. One potential difficulty with multi disciplinary cases is that the student may have more uncertainty in identifying the issues than in a case that is directed at a single discipline. Stake [1995] suggests that a case should have a clear decision point, and that lack of focus can reduce the effectiveness of the learning experience. This is a problem that we will be aware of as we continue to refine and modify the cases resulting from the workshop, and develop new cases.

The workshop provided a wonderful opportunity to collaborate with colleagues across business disciplines. We plan to continue those collaborative efforts via such activities as brown bag lunches, in which we will teach a case research project to our colleagues. Feedback from colleagues during the workshop led to a very focused learning experience that will supply a foundation for future case development.

IMPLICATIONS FOR OTHER UNIVERSITIES

In recent years, there has been a movement in business education towards more team taught classes, and integrated, interdisciplinary curricula. This has increased the demand for interdisciplinary case material. The collaborative process provided by the case writing workshop provided an excellent platform to facilitate the development of decision cases that allow students to integrate and synthesize material across business disciplines. At the same time, we have benefitted as a faculty. The process has increased our own awareness of the concepts that are critical and unique to each of our disciplines and the areas in which there is an overlap. The University of Puget Sound has a student body of approximately 2600 students; our business faculty consists of ten full time faculty, with some additional part time faculty. The collaborative process described here might need to be modified for a larger university. While some aspects of this experience may be unique to us in terms of our business curriculum and our university, much of what we learned is applicable to other schools.

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CHAPTER THREE

CASE TEACHING: A WAY TO BETTER LEARN ECONOMICS: A MAJOR EXPERIMENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF GRONINGEN

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Abstract

The Department of Economics at the University of Groningen intents to accomplish an active learning environment by case teaching. Therefore, a major case study experiment has been introduced into the courses of the first year. In addition case teaching for graduates in business economics is intensified and it is introduced to general economics graduates.

This paper shows by the means of the experiment whether case teaching contributes to the practicing of required skills in an active learning environment, and whether there is evidence that case teaching supports the skills required for the students to function properly on the labor market.

INTRODUCTION

A student asks his teacher: 'Where can I find information to solve this problem?' The teacher answers: Inside your head.

Both the demand side (students) and the supply side (teachers) criticize certain aspects of education. Students are said to be passive, the coherence between different fields is unclear, the education systems offers no possibilities for students to become active and independent. The Department of Economics (1,800 students) at the University of Groningen has tried to disprove these criticisms by creating a teaching environment that stimulates students to active learning. The purpose is to enhance those skills students will be needing during the rest of their careers.

The Department intents to accomplish this active learning environment, among other things, by case teaching. To this end in 1997/1998 a major case study experiment has been introduced into the courses of the first year. The aim of this experiment is to stimulate students to embark on a study of economics, to clearly show the relation between the different subjects, and to illustrate the relevance of economics for real life situations by linking theory and practice. In addition two cases were introduced in the courses of second year students. One case, the Edon case, combines management and organization issues with accounting problems; the other one, the Philips case, combines various topics from the courses marketing, international economics, economic law, and economic history. The intention of the overall experiment is also to expand case teaching for graduates in business economics and to introduce case teaching to general economics graduates. After the first semester most of the major case study experiments have been evaluated.

Moreover, at the end of 1997 two extensive surveys were held concerning the practicing of skills during the entire curriculum. One survey focused on teachers, the other on students. The conclusion was that during the curriculum students probably did not receive sufficient practical training in applying data collection techniques, in conducting independent research, in detecting, formulating and analyzing economic problems and in the real life application of economic theory.

The approach of case studies aims at improving and increasing certain skills in education. This paper will show whether case teaching contributes to the practicing of required skills in an active learning environment, and whether there is evidence that case teaching supports the skills required for the students to function properly on the labor market. First, we will explain what case teaching is and the ideal learning attitude of students and teachers in case teaching. Next, the costs and benefits of case teaching will be assessed by means of the recent experiment. Finally, the paper will focus on some major trade-offs of the costs and benefits of case teaching at the Department of Economics in Groningen: the trade-off between time to absorb theory and training of skills; the trade-off between the opportunity for teaching complicated theoretical models and training in order to gain insight into how to solve economic problems; and the trade-off between less theory and a greater understanding.

TEACHING SKILLS DURING THE STUDIES AND ON THE LABOR MARKET

TEACHER SURVEY[1]

In 1997 we interviewed 29 teachers about the practice of skills during the last three year of the studies of business economics, general economics and econometrics. We investigated the extent to which the following skills were practiced in the different subjects.[2]

1. writing presentations and reports;
2. presenting and reporting in public;
3. conducting independent and routine research;
4. independently detecting, formulating and analyzing economic problems;
5. comprehending and familiarizing oneself with academic literature;
6. solving problems and carrying out orders as a team;
7. thinking critically and not being afraid to call articles and thoughts in question;
8. applying theory in practice;
9. participating in discussions and debates;
10. applying certain techniques to collect data; and
11. computerizing;
12. the use of cases.

For general economics the results show a strong emphasize on the ability to write (1) and speak (2), comprehend and familiarize oneself with academic literature (5), think critically and call articles and thoughts into question (7). However, little attention is paid to conducting independent and routine research (3), solving problems and carrying out orders as a team (6), applying techniques to collect data (10), computerizing (11), and case studies (12).

In business economics a lot of attention is paid to writing presentations and reports (1), solving problems and carrying out orders as a team (6), thinking critically and not being afraid to call articles and thoughts into question (7), and applying theory in practice (8). Note, however, that these writing skills are mainly the result of teamwork. Compared to the curriculum of general economics, it is also shown that in the curriculum of business economics skills in data collecting (10) and conducting independent and routine research (3) are neglected.

For the training in econometrics the results demonstrate a strong emphasize on the ability to comprehend and familiarize oneself with academic literature (5). Attention is also paid to skills required to apply theory in practice (8) and to write presentations and reports (1). Little attention is paid to conducting independent and routine research (3), to applying certain techniques to collect data (10), and to participate in discussions and debates on the subject (9). As is the case in business economics, in econometrics too writing and oral performance is most often teamwork.

STUDENT SURVEY

In 1997 the Groningen Department of Economics held a survey among students who had graduated in 1993/1994. This survey involved 168 respondents (sample survey of 367) in business economics, 28 respondents (sample survey of 57) in general economics, 5 respondents in fiscal economics (sample survey of 9) and 20 (sample survey of 59) respondents in econometrics. The respondents were asked to indicate which skills are important for their careers and the extent to which their training in economics had supplied these skills [Ogink, 1997, pp. 38-9]. According to the respondents the most important skills for their current position on the labor market are the ability to think analytically and to work independently (97%), be initiative (94%), be flexible (91%), cooperate (91%), work with computers (89%), report (87%), be creative (83%), associate and connect subjects (79%), and speak in public (77%).[3] Of less importance are the ability to negotiate, to attend meetings, to have leadership qualities and speak and understand foreign languages. This was very much in line with the study of economics in which little attention is paid to these latter skills.

However, the respondents do think that the curriculum does not offer enough training in the ability to be initiative, flexible, to write (this does not apply to econometrics and general economics graduates), to be creative and to speak in public (this does not apply to graduates in general economics). Furthermore, general economics and econometrics graduates feel that too little attention is paid to computerization and to associating and connecting certain subjects respectively.

Respondents of the survey were also asked to express their opinion on theses concerning the relationship between theory and practice. The first thesis was that teachers paid enough attention to real life situations. Of econometrics graduates 21%, of business economics graduates 38%, and of general economics graduates 45% agreed with this thesis. 18% of the econometrics and business economics graduates and 28% of the general economics graduates agreed with the thesis that in lectures enough attention was paid to discussions concerning the relevance and shortcomings of the theory. 44% of the respondents agreed with the thesis that during the studies enough attention was paid to the practice. Especially econometrics and general economics graduates felt that the study ought to have been more oriented towards practice. These results are similar to those in a study by Hansen. In this research it is concluded that students in economics are not trained in basic skills like communication, creativity and application [Hansen, 1991, p. 1054].

WHAT IS CASE TEACHING?

Case teaching consists of three components. The first one is a good case; the second one is the preparation of students: and the third one is the plenary analysis of the case.

The first requirement for case teaching is a good case. What makes a case suitable for case teaching? In the literature there are many definitions of cases. For example:

- 'Cases are narrative accounts of actual, or realistic, situations in which policymakers are confronted with the need to make a decision' [Carlson and Schodt, 1995];
- 'A case study describes typical administrative issues or problems confronting a manager in an organization. Ideally it is taken from real life. It is usually presented from the viewpoint of the decision maker involved' [European Case Clearing House];
- 'A case is a tool for education. This tool describes a problem, a situation or an event taken from its real context and based on its learning objectives' [Lkoundi and Van Woerden, 1997, p. 11];
- 'In teaching business or administration we think that a rough relevant case offers a description concerning the situation and/or process of a real life situation of the actors themselves' [Korsten et al., 1997, p. 5].

It is clear that there are many ways to describe or define a case. The reason for all these definitions may be explained by the many different learning objectives of a case, by the many different forms of cases, by the different views on teaching and by the specific skills that are needed for certain fields of education[4]. Rather than adding another definition of a case to the existing list of definitions we will determine the characteristics of a good case from the mainstream literature.

The characteristics of a 'good' case:

- a case is taken from real life;
- a case is written by or based on the experiences of professionals, although a case can also consists of magazines or newspaper articles;

- a case leads to analyzing and solving of a problem;
- the problem is part of a context in which the real life event occurred;
- the context is complex and leads to uncertainty;
- a case allows students to put themselves in the place of the decision maker;
- a case does not lead to one single solution, but it leads to a debate in which several alternatives for the solution are put forward.

BENEFITS OF CASE TEACHING

ECONOMIC DECISION MAKING

Practicing economics is a way of thinking. It is a huge toolbox that can be used in the decision making process. Economics is a complex science that leads to decision making concerning all kind of trade-offs. The context of cases is also complex. Moreover, cases contain information that can be used to make qualitative trade-offs. Economic theories lack this kind of information. Moreover, mastering economic concepts and theories in clear situations does not provide guidelines or rules for understanding real life economic processes. For example, a person wants to invest and he is looking for someone who can make money for him. Who does he choose? Is he going to trust a financial expert who graduated recently and who masters the latest, sophisticated and complicated econometric investment models. Or does he prefer a financial expert who graduated some years ago and who bases his investment decisions on experience and intuition mainly. In other words, the decisions of this financial expert are in fact based on cases from previous -real life- experiences. Especially, in situations in which economic theories and concepts cannot provide any solutions, case teaching can guide and support the decision making process. Thus, cases can provide students with an insight into the economic decision making process and the application of economic basic principles in the decision making process [Marks and Rukstad, 1996, pp. 139-41].

MOTIVATING AND STIMULATING STUDENTS

Case teaching is not only an instrument to learn students to think like economists; it can also be used to motivate and stimulate students to learn economic theory.[5] If the main learning objective of case teaching is to motivate students, the case is first presented to the students, and consequently, the students will study the theory.[6] By analyzing and studying the case the student will find out that he needs to know certain economic concepts or theories to solve the case. This teaching method can be compared to the principles of driving lessons. In the very first lesson the instructor demonstrates the breaks, the accelerator and the steering wheel. Without having any knowledge of the theoretical aspects of driving a car, the pupil will start to drive. The pupil will simply learn to drive the car by actually driving. After this first lesson the pupil still does not know any of the theoretical aspects of driving a car. To many people driving would be very boring, if they had to learn the theory before being allowed to get into a car. In this respect there are many similarities between driving lessons and case teaching: by giving students a case to analyze before teaching them the theory of economics, they will be much more motivated to study theory, compared to the situation in which they are taught economic theory really knowing how it can be applied to real life situations.

APPLYING ECONOMIC THEORY

Case teaching can also be a useful instrument if the main learning objective is to teach students to apply economic theory and concepts. The method that serves the objective best is to teach students the theory before presenting the case.[7] Cases aimed at applying theory are more complicated than cases aimed at motivating students. Cases aimed at applying theory can, for example, include qualitative data that have to be analyzed by the students, reveal shortcomings of theories, or demonstrate that more than one theory, and sometimes even conflicting theories, can be used to analyze and solve the case.

The distinction between these two methods of case teaching does not imply that the method aiming at motivating students does not involve analyzing skills or that the method aiming at applying economic theory does not motivate students. On the contrary, it implies that approaches contain elements of both methods and thus teach students to apply theories in practice, to analyze, to take decisions and above all stimulate students to study economics.

EVALUATING CASE TEACHING

It is quite difficult to evaluate case teaching, since specific skills are tested rather than testing a certain amount or level of knowledge.[8] For example, students have learned to take decisions under uncertainty, to analyze data, to identify or solve a problem. Therefore, it can be very difficult for students to indicate what they have learned. For example, a graduate of a traditional international economics course can say, 'I fully understand and I can explain the Ricardo model and the modern trade theory models'. A student who has analyzed a case study of a free trade dispute has learned to determine his/her position in a political debate on the establishment of trade barriers. However, it may be quite difficult for this student to describe the newly acquired skill, and in many cases the student may not even be aware of what exactly he has learned. And for the teacher it is difficult to test this skill. Therefore, when evaluating case teaching teachers as well as students must be aware of the learning objectives of this specific case.

Marks and Rukstad have introduced case teaching at a macroeconomics course. In their experience students are much more motivated and involved in the learning process since case teaching was introduced [Marks and Rukstad, 1996, p. 146].

Carlson and Schodt introduced case teaching in a course on development economics and a course on international monetary problems [Carlson and Schodt, 1995, pp. 19-23]. Their evaluation reveals that most students felt that cases are more useful than traditional teaching methods. Only two out of 55 students felt that case teaching was less useful than traditional teaching. None of the students was of the opinion that the cases should be replaced by lectures. The survey also shows that students thought that cases were more suitable to learn to apply economic theory to solve real life problems and to analyze and process data. Questions concerning group discussions indicated that these discussions revealed new insights to students and that they helped students to understand economic theory as applied to development economics and monetary economics.

Velenchik observed two groups of students. One group followed a relatively theoretically oriented course in international economics, while the other group followed a course on international economics taught by cases [Velenchik, 1995, pp. 36-7]. The course taught by the case method was less theoretical and students who opted for this course also had less theoretical background compared to the students who chose the theoretical course. Velenchik also compared this group of students to a group that took the course before she switched to case teaching. Velenchik concluded that students who took the course taught by cases very much enjoyed the course and:

- had a better and more complete understanding of the theory;
- were better at answering exam questions concerning the analysis of real life problems on the basis of economic theory;
- were better in identifying and explaining the various points of view;
- were better at writing term papers; and
- improved their ability to express themselves verbally.

EXPERIENCES WITH CASE TEACHING AT THE ECONOMICS DEPARTMENT

We introduced a major case study experiment into the first year courses of 1997/1998. For the experiment we chose the telecommunication company KPN. A case file was compiled, and the case designer had to persuade teachers to use the case, to write study questions and to integrate the case into their lessons. Thus, the case has been further developed with the help of the teachers so that we will have a more refined case in 1998/1999. The experience of students and teachers with the case and case material were evaluated to expand the case. The intention of this case experiment was:

- to structure the courses in the first year;

- to supply examples for these courses;
- to provide a stepping stone for study questions and tasks;
- to supply material for writing assignments; and
- to motivate students to study economics.

The learning objectives for the students were to learn:

- to understand the relation between the different courses;
- to illustrate the relevance of economics in real life situations by connecting theory and practice;
- to work as a team;
- to apply theory in practice;
- to gain insights into future working environments;
- to adopt an active learning attitude; and
- to handle diverse information sources.

The evaluation of the case refers to the first trimester and to the courses on micro economics and management and organization. The number of respondents was 163. The survey demonstrated that the case:

- stimulated students to adopt an active attitude compared to traditional teaching methods (77%);
- left room for creativity (81%);
- connected theory and practice (77%);
- revealed the relation between the two courses (53%);
- taught students how to write an assignment (76%);
- taught students to cooperate (61%);
- taught them to plan their activities (67%); but
- did not stimulate students to study several other information sources (newspapers 19%, Internet 24%).

In the second year courses two more cases were introduced. One case, the Edon case, was introduced in the first trimester. This case combines management and organization issues with accounting problems. The other case, the Philips case, will be introduced in the third trimester and combines various topics from courses on marketing, international economics, economic law, and economic history. The Edon case has been evaluated, and 26 students responded. This case was not compulsory; students could only gain some bonus points. Therefore, one should keep in mind that students who decided to join the case were probably very motivated. These students indicated that the case:

- stimulated them to take actively study theory (96%);
- stimulated creativity (77%);
- revealed the connection between the two courses (73%);
- enabled students to apply theory in practice (92%);
- improved their understanding of the theory (62% accounting, 92% management and organization);
- improved their writing skills (60%);
- required cooperation (89%);
- taught them to plan their activities (56%);
- taught them to handle various information sources (81%), but
- did not improve their verbal skills (55%).

The last case we evaluated was the AIR project. This case was introduced in a graduate course on international marketing and market research. The survey refers to 25 respondents. The students indicated that the case study:

- stimulated students to actively study theory (83%);
- stimulated creativity (80%);
- illustrated how theory can be applied in practice (80%);
- contributed to a better understanding of the theory (75%);
- did not improve students' verbal skills (68%);
- taught them how to plan their activities (63%); and
- taught them how to deal with several different sources of information (52%).

Our initial experiences with case teaching are very positive. The same applies to the experiences in the literature – which leads us to the question why case teaching is not applied everywhere and by everyone.

THE COSTS OF CASE TEACHING

TIME

Case teaching is very time consuming. First, teachers will have to write cases or they will have to select existing cases. It is obvious that writing a case takes a lot of time, but selecting a case that suits the learning objectives also takes time. Moreover, with respect to general economics there are not that many suitable cases. Our experiences with the KPN case demonstrated that it was sometimes difficult or impossible to cover all subjects. Teachers also felt that sometimes the case was not the most suitable way to illustrate a theory or an issue. The teachers of the Edon case felt that it was extremely time consuming to write the case and therefore they had to hire assistants. The teacher of the AIR project was also involved in writing the case. He indicated that the opportunity to develop a case like this one would be once every ten years. Second, to students case teaching is also very time consuming. Students have to prepare and analyze the case. They have to read lots of information, which is not always relevant to the case and the economic concepts they are supposed to master. Students have to find and study the theory and apply it. They have to take decisions in complex situations. In short, students have to become more active and can no longer absorb lectures, studying books, and do lots of exercises to prepare for exams. Case teaching is no longer a straightforward way of teaching students theory. Third, the classical analyze of a case takes time. At our faculty in Groningen there are 200 first year students. We could group them into one large room and give a lecture; this is not possible in case teaching.

EXPERTISE OF TEACHER AND STUDENT

The teacher is not only required to be an expert in his field of science, he also has to be able to lead discussion within the group. He must stimulate and help students in debates and arguments, and he must not spoil the case by telling students a solution of the case. Case teaching means that all students should get the opportunity to discuss their analyses. Therefore, a teacher must be careful when indicating which answers are right and which are wrong. As a result students have more influence on the teaching process than in case of traditional teaching methods. Still, it is the teacher's responsibility to teach his students economics. Therefore, the teacher must guide the group debates in the direction of the learning objectives, but he should also do this rather diplomatically.

Students must adopt an active learning attitude and can no longer passively absorb the theory. They must prepare the case themselves. However, in the cases at the Groningen University we learned that some students would shared the work (for example, one group of students would analyze case 1 and another group would analyze case 2, after which they would exchange analyses). We also noticed that some students showed free-riding behavior. In addition to the individual preparation, it is important that students are not afraid to talk or to make mistakes in front of their colleagues. They have to learn to deal with complex situations and all kinds of information sources: they have to learn to scan information and pick out the useful bits, and live with uncertainty. This can be quite confusing to students who are not used to case teaching.

Case teaching can only be successful if both teachers and students are willing to make the effort.

LESS THEORY

Since case teaching is time consuming, students cannot absorb as much theory as they can when they are taught in the traditional manner. It also means that teachers cannot teach their students as much theory as they use to be able to. Therefore, case teaching means that teachers and students will have to make concessions concerning the amount of theory. Moreover, it is unlikely that case teaching cover all subjects in the field of economics. For example, it is not efficient to use case teaching to learn students more advanced model building.

CASE TEACHING: AN ESSENTIAL METHOD FOR STUDYING ECONOMICS?

Naturally, studying the pros and cons of case teaching, the central issue is whether or not the pros outweigh the cons. In other words, is it worthwhile to introduce case teaching and continue to use traditional teaching methods? First, we will take a closer look at the factor time. It is obvious that writing cases takes time.[9] However, once a teacher has written a good case, he/she could perhaps exchange cases with a colleague from another university. If the case complies to the conditions of the European Case Clearing House (ECCH), the author can submit the case to the ECCH and receive royalties if other teachers decide to use the case. A website for cases can also stimulate the exchange of cases.[10] If the teacher wants to work with an existing case he also can try the ECCH. The ECCH is specialised in business cases. Although the supply of cases for general economics is not overwhelming there are some cases.[11]

It also is true that the preparation of a case takes time, but preparing a lecture can also be rather time consuming. If teachers use existing cases, these cases often include teacher notes.[12] Some casebooks are published together with an instruction for teachers.[13] Giving feedback on case analyses also takes time. However, in the literature there is evidence that students gain a better understanding of the theory through writing assignments.[14] This is in line with our experiences with writing assignments as part of case teaching. Ninety-seven of the 163 respondents indicated that due to the writing assignment they had gained a better understanding of the theory. However, most graduates in economics have little experience with writing. The reason for this is probably that it takes too much of the teacher's time to mark writing assignments. In this respect case teaching may be very suitable. Written case analyses do not have to be as lengthy as writing assignments. Moreover, the teachers feedback can be less elaborate than with writing assignments, because the case analysis in the group replaces a part of the feedback of the teacher.

Second, we will deal with the trade-off between case teaching and less theory. By evaluating this trade-off one should keep in mind the benefits of case teaching, in particular the better understanding of the theory and the future career of students. At our faculty, most economics students will not become professional economists and most of them study business economics.[15] Thus, for their future careers most graduates will require skills like the ability to analyze, make decisions, and formulate opinions and judgements. These skills can be taught through case teaching. The teaching of complicated theoretical models would have to be moved to the end of the curriculum or would have to be optional. Thus, graduates who are interested in becoming a professional economist will learn all the relevant topics and at the same time the other graduates will not have to study issues that will be comparatively irrelevant in their future jobs. At the Groningen faculty of economics, graduates in general economics and business economics will follow the same courses in the first four trimesters of the curriculum. This means that graduates in general economics will be gain a better understanding of business economics, and vice versa. This better understanding will be accomplished due to the specific characteristics of case teaching. Moreover, case teaching can be used in the first four trimesters to show the relationship between general economics and business economics. For example, Rukstad [1992a, 1992b] has written a case book in which policymakers have to take economic decisions in a macroeconomic context and a case book in which managers have to take decisions in a business context that is affected by the macroeconomic environment. Students can taught the relation between general en business economics by choosing macroeconomic cases and business cases from the same period.

CASE REACHING: THE RIGHT WAY FOR THE GRONINGEN DEPARTMENT?

The answer is a definite yes. The survey of the Department demonstrated that during the curriculum students probably did not receive sufficient practical training in conducting independent and routine research; detecting, formulating and analyzing economic problems, applying theory to real life issues, using various techniques to collect data. Case teaching gives students the opportunity to develop these skills to a greater extent. Obviously, initially the implementation of case teaching at our Department will take extra time and effort on the part of both students and teachers. However, once these two groups are used to case teaching, the marginal costs will decrease and the marginal benefits will increase. The introduction of case teaching will probably involve a reshuffle of the contents of the first year courses. This reshuffling means a reduction in the amount of learning material and an increase in the training of skills. This reshuffling also means shifting complex theoretical models more towards the end of the curriculum. Moreover, we will have to look at the different teaching methods like lecturing, working groups, study groups etc. to see whether some of these teaching methods can be replaced with case teaching.

The benefits of case teaching are clear. Moreover, the costs of case teaching can be reduced. Summarising, case teaching offers a method to accomplish an active learning environment; it can teach the skills students require in their future careers, like analytical thinking and working independently. Finally, case teaching tackles the problems of students who complain about their curriculum not paying enough attention to the relationship between theory and practice.

Therefore, case teaching is a must for the Department of Economics at the University of Groningen: 'Cases belong in the macroeconomic curriculum' [Marks and Rukstad, 1996, p. 14].

ENDNOTES

1. The survey was held at the end of 1997. Results (in Dutch) are available from the author.

2. General economics involved 35, business economics 83 and econometrics 23 subjects.

3. According to the American Economic Association's Commission on Graduate Study the essential skills for an economist are: analyzing, mathematics, critical judgement, application, computation, creativity and communication, [Hansen, 1990, p 439]. A 1995 research by Brown et al concludes that the most important skill is the ability to identify central problems and hypotheses.

4. For a survey of all kinds of cases and opinions in education see, for example, Lkoundi and Van Woerden, 1997 and C.S. Damle, 1989.

5. For a description of a way to use case teaching to motivate students to learn theory see, for example, Velenchik, 1995, pp. 32-38.

6. This method is, for example, applied in: Introduction to International Economics, by Jepma et al., 1997.

7. See endnote 5.

8. See for example Marks and Rukstad, 1996, p. 141.

9. For guidelines on how to write a case, see, for example, Leenders and Erskineg, 1989, and Lkoundi and Van Woerden, 1997.

10. Teachers could also decide to join a website on case teaching and a discussion group. The website is still being organized. At the moment the website is in Dutch (www.eco.rug.nl/case) but in the near future it will be translated into English.

11. For example Rukstad (1992a) wrote cases for of macroeconomics; Ramirex (1989) for development economics; Gomez-Ibanez and Kalt (1990) for micro economics; and Yoffie (1990) and Jepma et al. (1996) for international economics.

12. Teacher notes are the instructions for teaching. These notes contain a short summary of the case and its context, learning objectives and target group, teaching approach and strategy, case analyses, references, and feedback.

13. Instruction books for teachers can be ordered together with, for example, the casebooks by Rukstad and Yoffie.

14. See, for example, Davidson and Gumnior (1993) or Crowe and Youga (1986).

15. The inquiry the faculty held among students who graduated in 1993/1994 [Ogink, 1997] demonstrates that 32% of the graduates in general economics have a job in bank and insurance business and 11% in public service and universities. Thus the percentage of graduates in general economics having jobs as professional economist id far below the 11%. For the graduates in business economics and econometrics it demonstrates that respectively 74% and 75% have a job in business servicing sector.

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USING CASE WRITING AS A TEACHING TOOL

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Abstract

There is an extensive body of literature on the benefits of cases in a classroom setting. One aspect that has not been extensively explored, however, is the benefits of having students actively engaged in case writing. This paper is based on the authors' experiences with case-writing as an integral part of a course project. In our opinion, having students research and write their own cases for classroom use enables them to develop and use valuable skills in the areas of research, analysis, and communication. Also, importantly, it helps students learn to distinguish between information and opinion, providing them with a stronger base for their subsequent analysis.

BACKGROUND: COURSES AND CONTEXT

While one of the authors was introduced to case writing as a student, it was in a doctoral seminar on business strategy. In fact, many doctoral students become involved in the case writing process as part of their thesis, in order to describe the situation or corporation on which their research and analysis are based. However, in our experience, students have been expected more often to study cases, rather than write them.

The use of case writing as a teaching technique grew out of the final project in senior and MBA level courses taught by the authors. Both authors prefer to assign a final project which integrates material from the entire course, to a final examination. This is particularly true for our courses in Strategic Management and Business, Government & Society (BGS). Both courses are designed to allow students to draw together diverse material, as well as analyze, and make detailed recommendations. The final project allows students to investigate one issue or one company in depth. For example, in the BGS course, students might research and write about some aspect of corporate ethics, deceptive advertising, the cigarette industry, or other contemporary topic, applying the analytical techniques and other concepts they have studied to a detailed examination of a highly specific topic. In Strategic Management, the final project typically requires students to develop a detailed strategic proposal for a real company. In both courses, students have latitude to choose the specific topic that interests them, but the projects must be approved as appropriate in theme and in complexity.

In previous years in the BGS course, students worked in teams to research an issue in depth, develop an analysis, present that analysis in class, and write a final paper. The presentations served several purposes: to expose the rest of the class to a variety of current issues (in addition to the one each group is studying), to give students experience in making a presentation before an audience, and to allow the group to receive feedback on its analysis before it writes the final version of its paper. However, class size usually required that each group have only half a period (approximately 40 minutes), too little time to explain the background of the issue and present their analysis. Similarly, in the Strategic Management course, students would have limited time to provide the necessary background on their company before detailing their strategic recommendation. In both situations, the presenting group would not be able to do a thorough analysis and would therefore not receive adequate feedback. Was there a way to improve the presentations, and hence the quality of the final paper?

METHODOLOGY

The basic problem appeared to be one of providing the student audience with background information prior to the presentations, so that the group could focus on its analysis. The rest of the class would then be able to evaluate and contribute to the conclusions, rather than trying to assimilate basic background information. The solution was obvious - distribute the background, the facts of the situation, in advance, for the class to read and, hopefully, prepare as they would, any other case. We then began to require students to write up the facts and background in the form of a case that their classmates could use. The first draft of the case is due approximately in the middle of the course; most cases go through at least one revision before being reproduced and handed out to the class.

One immediate benefit of having student groups write a case about their topic was that the quality of presentations improved dramatically. A group could focus on giving its analysis and recommendations. Classmates could be informed listeners, and were able to ask more detailed questions and provide better feedback. In most cases, this led to an improvement in the final written version of the project.

We also discovered a variety of additional benefits to students being case writers. These included benefits to the case writers themselves, as well as to the class as a whole and to the instructor.

BENEFITS TO THE STUDENT CASE WRITER

An obvious benefit to the students is that it imposes organization and a time schedule. Each group has to submit a draft of its case by the midpoint in the course. This forces them to pick a topic promptly, and to start their research in a timely manner.

We read and extensively comment on the drafts and return them within a week, to allow for revision. This may involve the need for additional information, or may be primarily for clarity. Typically, a group has about a week at this point to rewrite their case.

Many schools have implemented (or are considering) a Writing-Across-the-Curriculum requirement, to encourage students to see writing as an essential form of communication in all fields, not just for English majors. The process of revision, accompanied by multiple drafts, is one important aspect of this requirement. Students in our courses typically do at least one rewrite of their case, often quite substantial. Thus, our students have learned the value of effective editing and rewriting of their material.

Students also learn to think about their audience's needs. Many groups go beyond simply providing basic information, to try to make their case more interesting for the class to read. Concern for effectiveness is an important step in developing their communications skills.

Even without the impetus of a grade specifically assigned to the case itself, many groups take pride in producing a high quality case. They are often very good at picking up the tone used by many experienced case-writers, including the use of past tense, and even a "hook". It is our belief that many students experience a feeling of empowerment, realizing that they, as students, are able to produce instructional materials good enough to be used by their class, and potentially even by future classes. They know that we use some student-written cases in subsequent semesters, as will be discussed below.

Another benefit is that the students become more involved in both the company and the decision making aspects of the situation. As many have noted before us, and as we have observed through this process, our students learn better and retain more by actually developing the cases themselves. In essence, the students are learning by doing. Instead of reading and analyzing a case prepared by someone else and assigned by us, they are gaining greater understanding of both the company and issues involved in the situation by developing the background material and preparing and writing the case themselves.

A final important benefit to the case writers is that it forces them to focus on the facts. As is frequently cited, a case should not contain the writers' opinions. Students, however, frequently succumb to the human tendency to start to interpret and analyze information immediately. This can lead to forming an opinion before they have looked at all the facts. In writing their case, however, they realize that they need to present only the facts, in order that their classmates can perform their own analyses. The student groups do have an opportunity, in fact an obligation, to present their opinions as part of their analysis; however, by writing the case separately and first, they are forced to separate the two.

The case format also requires that students look for a variety of facts, not just those that are easiest to find (increasingly, those that are on the world-wide web). They are encouraged to provide a balanced account, including multiple points of view. This forces them to look for material on the company's point of view, as well as that of other important stakeholders. They must explore a variety of sources, corporate, popular press, and otherwise. It also forces them to confront the issue of completeness of information - how much do they really need in order to make an informed decision? Frequently, they come to an understanding that it is better for a manager to have too much information, rather than not enough. They also realize that in providing too much information, that decision makers are faced with the need to seek out the truly critical aspects of the environment while trying to filter out the noise that confronts most managers. They also come face-to-face with the reality that often a decision-maker has to make do with information that is imperfect or inadequate.

BENEFITS TO THE CLASS

The class also receives benefits from reading and studying cases written by their fellow students. As noted previously, each group focuses intensively on one project or company. The presentations, and particularly the cases, allow the students to learn about each others' issues. Recent projects, for example, have dealt with Medicare reimbursement and managed health care, with the ethics of competition in the personal computer industry, and with media-related topics including violence in the movies, on television, and in music. For many students, this was their first introduction to the managerial implications of these issues; in the case of the Medicare project, they also learned the basics of managed health care.

Another benefit to the class as a whole is that the course is heavily front-loaded. In the last weeks of the course, the only outside readings are each others' cases. This frees up out-of-class time for them to focus on their own analyses. In class, they have the opportunity to hear, and critique, other groups. Having already read the background, they can observe and learn from each others' analytical and presentation styles. They also learn to give feedback (generally, constructive) via evaluation forms with open-ended questions, which they fill out for each group.

BENEFITS TO THE INSTRUCTOR

There are both actual and potential benefits to having students write cases as part of their course assignment. Because of the need for adequate information in the case, students come to realize that stakeholders are not just a list of people who are affected by a business's actions; students understand that there are multiple points of view, many of them both important and conflicting, in virtually any situation. The quality of students' analyses is somewhat improved, compared with pre-case-writing projects. Students know the facts in detail, having had to research and communicate them to others. Only after the case is written do they focus on analysis, which they can then concentrate on exclusively. One hoped-for benefit to their future instructors is improvement in the students' communications skills, in particular clarity, grammar, and organization in their writing. (Since the case comes quite late in the course, the benefit of students' practice in rewriting does not have much opportunity to be transferred to subsequent assignments in our course). While the quality of student-written cases varies, some of them have been very good indeed. We have even been able to use the better cases in class, during the following semester, as the basis for regular class discussion or as an exam. Initially, we asked orally for permission to use the students' work. We have now developed a basic release form, whereby any student group can give us permission to use their case.

The student permission form also authorizes us to use their case as the starting point for case writing of our own. Even the less well written cases are based on research, which gives us a head start in developing our own data base on a topic. In this situation, the students receive credit similar to other research assistants. Some cases require additional information or rewriting; in this situation, the students are listed as co-authors, along with the instructor who also contributed. In rare situations, the students' case is so complete and well-written that it is publishable in its own right, under its student authorship. However, their analysis and recommendations are not sufficient for a professional teaching note, which then would be authored (or co-authored with them, if appropriate) by the instructor. Students are excited, and even inspired, by the possibility of becoming part of the teaching process themselves.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Incorporating student case writing into our management courses has been very rewarding. The students appear to enjoy "completing the circle", learning to create instructional materials of the type that they have so often used. Although they may not learn more about their issue than under a conventional project format, this learning is shared with their classmates in a more readily absorbed format. Also, the students tend to retain the knowledge they have gained, for a longer period, due to their having developed the basic material themselves, as opposed to having it assigned to them as a reading. It is our belief that their final project is better, because they have been obligated to gather a complete and multi sided set of facts before beginning their analysis. We also believe that, rather than bemoaning the level of our students' skills, we are making a positive contribution to improving their ability to be objective, and to communicate clearly, with regard for the needs of their audience. Although only one part of the course, case writing has the potential to help students to further these skills as well as to demonstrate their knowledge of the course's content.

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THE USE OF GENERIC MINI-CASES IN MANAGEMENT COURSES

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Abstract

The author reports on the use of generic mini-cases in an environment where sufficient case-material is not available and where writing of cases is culturally not well accepted yet. Generic mini-cases differ from traditional mini-cases (as used by the incident method) as being strings of very short texts describing typical managerial problems in a single company operating in an industry and region familiar to students. Generic mini-cases have found favorable acceptance as well with undergraduate as with part-time students in courses covering strategic management, business-to-business marketing and services marketing. The associative reasoning concept used with generic mini-cases may, under circumstances, be a creative alternative to the traditional virtual reality concept of Harvard-type cases.

THE GENERIC MINI-CASES

The generic mini-cases differ from extensive Harvard-type case in length and composition. First, the typical generic mini-case is up to 100 words long and well structured to allow for fast comprehension and reading, preferably when shown from a transparency. Second, generic mini-cases are strings of descriptions, dealing with one organization only; the first case in the series is a short description of the organization and of the main actors.

The author has so far developed 15 generic mini-cases in strategic management, 10 in business-to-business marketing, 10 in marketing of services and 10 in business communications. These mini-cases were used with full-time and part-time undergraduate students at the College of Management in Koper as well as at several other colleges in Slovenia.

The generic mini-cases are used as a substitute for traditional, Harvard-type cases; they draw less on extensive information about a situation or organization and more on the existing students' experience and knowledge. In this report, the development, use and experiences with generic mini-cases are dealt with. In conclusion, an analysis of two concepts - the virtual reality and the associative reasoning - is given along with some suggestions for further research.

HOW THE GENERIC MINI-CASES WERE CREATED

The concept of mini-cases is certainly not new. They are mostly used in textbooks to illustrate important concepts and problems. Some are based on real situations; some are of the armchair type.

The author started to use them out of sheer necessity and discovered, after several experiments, that they can be a very useful instrument in teaching management and other subjects. For practical reasons the author tried to create a series of short cases dealing with a single organization.

The experiment started - not very systematically - during preparations for several new courses at the recently established College of Management in Koper, Slovenia. This independent college was established in accordance with the new Law on higher education, which was passed by the Slovenian parliament two years ago. The new law allows for independent 3-year colleges, less oriented towards academic research than practical training.

At the WACRA 1997 the author has, together with professor Janko Kralj, reported on an innovative approach to proactive study applied at the College of Management in Koper. As prescribed, the program includes equal shares of lectures, workshops/seminars and in-company training. Therefore, approx. 380 hours of workshops and seminars must be provided during each of the first two years of the program and approx. 230 hours in the third year - or nearly 1000 hours during the total program. The college is a public institution and is financed in accordance with the law, which provides compensation for professors lecturing in the program, but only for one assistant instructor per 300 hours (in the academic year) of workshops and seminars, which are held in groups of approx. 40 students (there are approx. 120 students enrolled in each generation).

The financial means available for the development of the program are thus severely limited. The college has a relatively progressive program and can therefore use few of the existing textbooks in Slovenia. Consequently, more than twenty new textbooks have to be published. Students bear the printing costs only; the authors however are compensated from other very limited funds. There are no relevant funds available for the development of materials and methods considering the large number of workshops and seminars - except for a very modest compensation for written texts.

As reported at the WACRA conference last year, several methods are applied by professors and assistants to cover the program time dedicated to student workshops efficiently and effectively. Even so, there is a severe deficit in teaching materials - first of all cases.

A significant number of professors and assistants are familiar with the use of cases, but few are sufficiently motivated to undertake the writing of new cases without proper compensation. The number of new cases, specific enough for the use in the program, is thus growing slowly, if steadily; several of these case are listed with the Cranfield Case Clearing House and the Case Clearing House of the Faculty of Economics, Ljubljana University. In addition, it is hard to get permission of Slovenian organizations and individuals to use them in case materials; this is to a large extent due to political circumstances related to the transition to private ownership and market economy.

Several foreign case materials are used in classes at the College of Management, but with limited success. The students are not sufficiently familiar with organizations dealt with, there are few cases on small companies, which are prevailing in Slovenia, and the contents of case materials are culturally alien to the students.

Thus the author - who had to write several textbooks last year – met with considerable difficulties when preparing adequate teaching materials for his classes. To enliven his lectures he first wrote a mini-case and tried to use it. The result was fairly encouraging - and so he composed another case and still another. The first of them was about a fictitious small tourist agency on the Slovene Mediterranean Coast. Even the main characters for the extensive series of cases, which were to follow, were created then and without much forethought.

Only then was the idea to write a series of mini cases created - and because the first one was quite successful, and other courses had to be provided for with teaching materials, other series followed. These very short stories thus became an integral part of several courses and the main characters found their place in slogans and the college small talk.

HOW THE GENERIC MINI-CASES ARE USED

The original use was obvious: the first of the string of cases that were to follow was used as an insert to enliven a lecture upon strategic management. Instead of just telling the case, the author presented the text of the mini-case on a transparency, then let the students read it and finally started a short discussion - asked questions, elicited some answers and gave his comments. This was a class of full-time students, young people aged about twenty - and the story of the case obviously had some appeal to them, especially as many of them are familiar with similar companies and situations.

Shortly after – having already written several cases - the author lectured to a group of part-time students, mostly people in their thirties and forties. There the reaction was even more favorable, although the lecture was not given on the coast. The students' answers and comments were full of conventional wisdom, but most of them correlated the story of the mini-case with the lecture of the day. They immediately used the concepts of the lecture in the practical context.

Only a few days later the author ran a workshop with syndicate groups. Given the circumstances, he did not have his regular materials and had to use a generic mini-case. Even if the content of the mini-case was far more limited than those of a regular case, the author gave a different question to each syndicate group, let them discuss it and present their conclusions and recommendations in a plenary session. Unexpectedly, the experiment born in an emergency was a complete success. For students, both the story and the questions were sufficiently meaningful in a familiar context, the discussions were engaged and the recommendations very useful.

Encouraged by these experiences the author then used a generic mini-case for the first time with part-time students who do not study on the coast. The case was introduced by the aid of a transparency explaining the main facts about the company and the actors. Again, the case was very well accepted and the contents of discussions and presentations were even more opulent than with regular students.

Now the generic mini-cases are regularly used both as refreshing inserts during lectures and as self-contained materials for discussion in problem solving groups. This unexpected success enticed several considerations.

FINDINGS AND CONSIDERATIONS

The least unexpected response to the use of generic mini-cases was a favorable acceptance during lectures. A refreshing insert between theoretical concepts can be most welcome. It was encouraging, though, that student spontaneously linked the contents of the story to the theory. Even more so - when later dealing with the same theoretical concept, it was enough to remind students of the story in the mini-case to have them remember the concept and use it properly.

During lectures the mini-case can be effective as a reminder to stress the importance of a structured and conceptually based approach to problem solving and decision-making. It offers a good opportunity to introduce the use of basic concepts and methods - such as goals and strategies, SWOT analysis, life cycle, situational leadership etc.

The generic mini-cases proved to be adequate for structured analysis and solution-finding in student work groups. Notwithstanding the meagerness of the case story - or perhaps precisely because of it - the richness of ideas generated and proposed may be surprising. This again gives the opportunity to introduce a critical consideration of the solutions proposed and an elimination process. It is true, however, that the generic mini-cases were mostly used with regular students in an environment where small tourist firms are fairly common and students share extensive information and experiences of them - either through observation or through social involvement.

More surprising are the results of generic mini-cases with adult part-time students. Not only was the story easily understood and the main problem grasped - the students spontaneously started to supplement the story with their own presumptions and imagination. For them, the half dozen sentences were enough to create an elaborate situation with numerous problems and opportunities; the characters of the mini-case started to live a life of their own in the students' minds - they behaved, as they would under similar circumstances. This however, opens an interesting alley.

WHAT ARE CASES - VIRTUAL REALITY OR STIMULI TO ASSOCIATIVE REASONING?

To a certain degree, they are both. Students, when reading the story of an exhaustive, Harvard-style, "virtual reality" case, find themselves involved and they may, to a certain degree, identify themselves with the situation and actors of the case. The information included in the case, may be sufficient for an in-depth analysis and rational decision-making.

This not only applies to extensive Harvard-style cases but also to live-cases with real-time information and response input, to computer-assisted simulations, business games and the like.

The advantages of the virtual reality concept are many. It gives the students the opportunity to gather valuable information about real organizations, markets, social interactions and so forth. This information can, eventually, be supplemented by the "what happened" information, indicating favorable and unfavorable outcomes of actions undertaken and decisions made. Such cases offer an excellent opportunity for training in the use of methods and techniques.

There are disadvantages too, of course. Perhaps the most dangerous is the underlying deterministic concept: the students are given a case with many facts and descriptions - and this should be an adequate basis for rational solution-finding and decision-making. It is obvious, though, that a case cannot be exhaustive enough as to cover all factual information about an organization - and even less to contain all conscious and subconscious knowledge, experience and skills of people who have important roles in the actual case.

Managers make a considerable part of decisions intuitively, not based on factual evidence and conscious mental processes. Thus, the "virtual reality" can never be the reality itself. The "right" and "wrong" decisions of actors in such cases and their consequences, as given in the "what happened" aftermath imply that the students shall intuitively make similar decisions as the actors of the case. This supposition in itself may considerably diminish the value of case-based teaching. Using cases from a different cultural setting may be even more questionable: different cultures, with different prevailing values certainly influence intuitive decision-making.

The advantages of exhaustive, Harvard-style cases definitely exceed the disadvantages. This is most certainly true when these cases are used in a relatively homogenous culture, where students and actors of the case share similar values. An experienced teacher will, undoubtedly, stir creative thinking and intuitive reasoning among students, he will insist that there are no single "right" decisions. However, this may not prove right if cases from one culture are uncritically used in another and if the "what happened" is used as a signpost for effective problem-solving and decision-making.

Each case can be used as a stimulus to associative reasoning. The generic mini-cases prove that the correlation between the amount of factual information in the case and the intensity and richness of associative reasoning may be very weak indeed.

The advantages of the associative reasoning concept are considerable. A very lean description of the situation and actors may stir the student to supplement it with his or her own knowledge and understanding; it may facilitate a closer identification of students with the characters in the case - and hence a more genuine finding of solutions and choosing relevant decisions. Such cases depend less on the cultural setting and on the students' prevalent background; the student will, as shown in this report, insert the "missing links" and make the case situation more familiar and more adequate for effective problem-solving and decision-making.

Last but not least, there are the very sketchy cases, which are much easier to write; they demand much less expenditure in time and money, much less effort in gathering and verifying data, obtaining permissions from those concerned and some more. The very central feature of the generic mini-case concept is that a single organization, with an unchanging set of characters, is dealt with. This allows for much shorter texts of mini-cases and for a stable set of associations established in the students' minds.

There are disadvantages too. The mini-cases may be more demanding for the teacher than the traditional ones; with mini-cases a lot of real experience is necessary, with traditional cases analytic problem-solving may suffice. The effort to direct and mentor student problem-solving groups may be much more important with mini-cases than with traditional ones. Poorly led mini cases may, quite possibly, evoke hard-to-control students' criticism - with a traditional case the teacher can easily retreat behind the barrier of formal analytical and problem-solving methods.

CONCLUSIONS

It is certainly not the intent of this report to minimize the value of the traditional case as a valuable teaching instrument. It would be unreasonable to uncritically promote the generic mini-case as a substitute for the traditional one. While both have merits, they can likewise be used quite inefficiently; both represent valuable approaches to teaching.

In the traditional "virtual reality" approach the story and information of the case is used to elaborate important concepts, skills, methods and the like. The preparation of the case must include extensive research and gathering of information.

When preparing a generic mini-case the problems - concepts, skills etc.- are defined first; then a very short and general story is created around the problem, prevalently as a stimulus to stir associative reasoning. The preparation of the case is focused on the problem and on a stimulating, easily understood story.

The generic mini-case, based on the associative reasoning concept has proven to be a useful instrument for teaching and training not only regular, full-time and less experienced students but also part-time, older and more experienced students. The generic mini-case is less time- and expense-consuming, than the traditional case - and can be easily adapted to different courses and environmental settings.

The experiences with the generic mini-case concept are satisfactory enough. In the future, the underlying mechanisms stirring associative reasoning shall be better understood and used in writing these cases. Thus, the generic mini-case concept may be an interesting challenge for research as well.

CASE ANALYSIS IN MARKETING AND LAW: DIFFERENCES IN DISCIPLINARY MODELS AND MODES OF THINKING

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Abstract

Representative marketing and law cases are examined and compared to highlight differences in the reasoning process and distinguish competency in these disciplines. Case discussion can enrich the formation of criteria which enable students to apply concepts to ever changing situations, important to developing proficiency in a discipline. Educators are challenged to teach cases to promote reasoning skills and promote critical thinking while considering the institutional and organizational context which constrains the practice of these disciplines.

INTRODUCTION

While cases can be used to accomplish different teaching and learning objectives in different disciplines, few examinations of case methods have distinguished the different modes of thinking that cases engender. Case discussion methods in many disciplines can aid the development of problem-solving skills, but the basis for reasoning with and about cases is significantly different in the various knowledge disciplines. This can be illustrated by specifically examining the teaching of cases in marketing and law disciplines.

Marketing cases, as well as many business cases, put the case reader in the position of the manager or managers in charge of key business decisions. Case discussion frequently focus upon developing a feasible course or courses of action by determining the key decision-making variables that are pertinent to accomplishing the manager's goals. It is not infrequent that several courses of action can apply in marketing cases. A well-executed sales promotion can be just as effective in raising sales as an innovative advertising campaign.

In the law, cases similarly describe specific circumstances. However, the purpose and process of case analyses in law are different. Cases are critical to defining legal concepts and demarcating applications of the law. In fact, "learning the law" is primarily the study of cases. Decisions rendered in legal cases may set important precedents, creating opportunities to define normal and acceptable interpretations of the law which can establish new standards.

Unlike the study of law, the facts of the case hardly need not be memorized in marketing. Markets are subject to change, and the case itself is only one example, one possible situation, or one possible opportunity. The facts of the case are pertinent only to the extent that they guide the study and learning of appropriate strategies and actions. Certain details included in the case may not be important or pertinent.

Knowledge of case law, on the other hand, can be fundamental to the ever changing factual situations to which law applies. Lawyers need to understand cases as a primary source of law and to counter interpretations by the opposing counsel. Certain cases set precedents, hence require a highly involved examination of the decision in the case in all of its aspects.

These initial comparisons raise at least two important points. The first issue is that two fundamentally different models of reasoning with cases apply. While "case analysis" in both instances call upon analytic and logical reasoning skills, the purposes in the use of the case differ fundamentally with respect to the intentions of each discipline. The marketing case sets the stage for managerial attention and decisive action, the law case sets a standard for a prescribed rule of conduct which is applicable to similar factual situations.

In spite of these differences, case examinations are a normal and conventional part of learning each discipline. Cases form much of the fabric of each of these disciplines. Cases are at the heart of what needs to be learned to succeed, to develop important skills, and become proficient in the field.

Cases may not be central to knowledge and practice in other disciplines and fields of knowledge, but they certainly appear to be particularly vital to both marketing and law. By comparison, a less typical example of utilizing cases is provided by Goodenough's [1991] discussion of medical cases. His cases are creatively utilized to shift the attention of students to examine issues which lectures cannot easily treat. Cases in this instance may not be necessary to medical standards or professional accreditation, but attention to cases can contribute to knowledge in other important ways.

Certainly not all cases require attention or detailed consideration. Case study needs to be highly selective in all disciplines. The question is to determine which specific case examples are necessary and useful. Which cases compel appropriate and important conceptualizations which are vital to practice of a discipline?

If cases are particularly important to marketing and law, an examination of the reasoning process in the case method is warranted to better understand excellence in these disciplines. In what follows, a representative, or "typical" case example is described and discussed in each discipline. The extension of the case to a new situation is then described. Contrasts and comparisons are then applied to highlight the reasoning process in each field. The paper concludes by examining two separate types of reasoning skills in the case approach in these fields. Implications of these differences are discussed.

CASE ANALYSIS IN THE LAW

The use of case analysis in the law is based on the tenet that judicial decisions create law. It is a source of law on equal footing with legislative and executive rule-making. In the U.S. common law system prior case decisions may be binding on future cases, thus the need for case analysis in order to develop legal skills becomes essential. A salient feature of the US common law legal system is the concept of precedent, judicial decisions which may be binding. Thus, every case takes on a broader perspective than its mere examination or recitation of its holding. It should be noted that for a judicial decision or case to be binding, it must involve cases with the same material facts, legal issues, and within the appropriate jurisdiction. The concept of what is binding is somewhat imprecise so that the courts can follows precedent unless they are persuaded to the contrary. A key feature of legal analysis is the ability to dissect the reasoning process to obtain general principles of law in order to properly evaluate the relative merits of a litigant's claim.

Law cases subject to analysis are for the most part appellate level decisions which have undergone trial and in some cases intermediate appellate review. They are published in reporters, a compendium of cases arranged in chronological order by geographic location. Case analysis in the discipline is the methodology used to have students learn the skills necessary for the practice of law. Students are to look for the connections, articulate the court's rationale, generate the legal principles from the inferences, and determine whether this case constitutes binding authority to the issue at hand. If matters can be differentiated sufficiently, then the court can always exercise its option to overrule a prior decision and thus create new law with all of its attendant consequences.

Case analysis method in the law can be illustrated by examining the landmark case of Miranda v. Arizona, Supreme Court of the United States [1966], 384 U.S. 436, 86 S. Ct. 1602. This case stands for the proposition that a defendant in a criminal matter has the constitutional right under the Fifth Amendment to be free from self incrimination. It provided new guidelines as to the rights, limitations and responsibilities of law enforcement personnel in facilitating and insuring that fundamental right. This case is a source of primary legal authority binding on federal and state court systems. This is due to the case being heard and decided by the court of last resort, the United States Supreme Court.

The first step in case analysis is the outline of procedural history. This has particular relevancy because it is the way that you can assess the relative importance of a case and whether or not it is binding on the instant case or factual situation. Issues of facts are generally resolved at the trial level, with issues of law and its proper application resolved at an intermediate appellate level and or at the court of last resort level. The higher the court, the greater the weight given to the opinion. This case commenced with a trial at the local state level and was reviewed by the intermediate and highest appellate court in Arizona. At each stage of review, the trial court decision was affirmed. This case eventually was reviewed at the federal level due to the constitutional nature of the issues on appeal.

Aside from the actual procedural history, another facet to be analyzed is whether or not this appeal was heard en banc (by all the members of the court) or by a representative panel. In the Miranda case there was an en banc opinion. Students need to recognize that appellate level courts provide only their decision without providing an opinion. In many cases the legal issues and their determination can be quite straightforward while in other cases it is problematic. The more problematic the issue the greater need for an detailed opinion.

The second step in case analysis is the determination of the facts of the case. Facts are usually classified as essential, significant and insignificant. An essential fact is one which can alter the outcome of a case if it changed or eliminated. A significant fact is a supplementary fact, the existence on non-existence of which does not alter the final result of the case but provides additional detail. An insignificant fact is one which may be interesting but has no relevancy to the legal issue at hand.

Students need to identify the essential facts because if the essential facts do not coincide with the new factual situation, the case may not be binding. Students can deduce essential facts by the references made to them in the opinion. Significant facts are historical in nature and provide the reader with additional information in order to understand the dispute.

In the Miranda case, the court highlights the essential facts that the lead defendant was taken from his home and placed in an isolated interrogation room with two officers. Said officers testified at trial that the defendant was never advised of this right to have a lawyer present, despite the paragraph in his confession stating that it was "voluntary and with full knowledge of his legal rights." These facts are the basis for the ample discussion by the court on police procedure and how the very nature of the their objectives interfere with a defendant's constitutional rights. As an example of a significant fact, we have the court's discussion on historical background on the privilege against self-incrimination commencing with the Court of Star Chamber and a present day case in Malloy v. Hogan, 378 U.S. 1 [1964].

The third step is the determination of the legal issue(s). Opinions may be divided into specific sections to highlight the court's treatment and resolution of the issue. Here in Miranda the court clearly states in the first paragraph of the opinion that the issue is focused on the admissibility of the statements obtained during custodial interrogation and the need for proper procedures to insure a defendant's constitutional right. The decision to admit or suppress said statements will be answered in the holding section.

The fourth step in a case analysis is the delineation of the court's holding and its rationale for such. The holding is the actual answer to the legal issue. In arriving at its determination the court reviews its understanding of custodial interrogation. It relies on examples found in police manuals used to train law enforcement personnel. It is a technique marked by psychological coercion, deceit and secrecy in order to trick the defendant from exercising his/ her rights. The court deems this practice in total contradiction with our legal principles. Thus in order to avoid this recurring problem due to the conflict of interest it orders law enforcement personnel to inform the individual of his/ her rights, regardless of familiarity with the law. Additionally, if there should be a waiver by the defendant then it is the burden of the prosecution to prove that the waiver was done knowingly and intelligently.

CASE ANALYSIS IN MARKETING

Case analysis in marketing can be illustrated by examining the well-worn Harvard Business School case, "Sunkist Growers, Inc." [Greyser, 1976]. The case examines the decision that executives at Sunkist Growers, Inc. (SGI) were considering in October, 1972 for their fresh lemon advertising campaign for the following year. The case is unusual in that executives were debating a proposal to use the entire $1 million media budget to create and purchase advertising space a single magazine, *Ladies' Home Journal*.

The case is divided into several sections describing the particular marketing circumstances at the time of the case. SGI was at that time a non-profit marketing association representing 8,000 citrus growers in California and Arizona. Tabular data is presented for lemon production for 1969 to 1972 for SGI production as well as other states and other countries. Consumption trends are then described for fresh lemon consumption in the United States. The 1971 and 1972 advertising campaigns are discussed, and the specific parameters which executives created for the 1973 campaign are enumerated.

While the case is relatively short, a considerable amount of both quantitative and qualitative data is presented. The fourteen exhibits included in the case present data on the demographic and psychographic characteristics of users, examples of print advertisements, tracking studies of advertising awareness, and an index of magazine readership. The case provides ample material for analysis on lemon production and consumption as well as the characteristics of lemon users.

Utilizing the information that is presented, case readers can conceptualize the problem facing managers, assess the impact of past advertising, and take a position on the unusual course of action being proposed to concentrate advertising in one magazine. Outside of a few managerial conclusions described in the case, such as "the apparently weak impact of the 1971 campaign," information is commonly presented without judgment. Being given few specific directions, case readers need to determine what facts are relevant to the decisions being proposed.

Much of the information in the case is provided to give richness and depth in describing the managerial situation. The case is quite realistic and detailed. For example, fresh lemon consumption is cited as declining, but this is noted as specifically declining from four pounds per person in 1950 to two pounds per person in 1971. Such quantitative richness of information is useful in that it provides specific and realistic material in depicting the situation facing managers. Such material may potentially contribute to enriching case analysis and ensuing discussions in that it allows students to grasp the complexity of the managerial environment, the context in which managerial decisions occur.

The detailed information which is presented in such cases places case readers in the shoes of managers. Students can practice their ability to assess information and benefit from the perspective that others bring to that same information during case discussions. Solutions presented must be both accurate and convincing, marketing cases are an exercise in managerial communication as much as a challenging problem to consider. Feedback is therefore particularly vital to the student, both from fellow students and instructors, in that it can help students build confidence and gauge the impact of their arguments.

The unusual aspect of the Sunkist case, the concentration of advertising in one media vehicle, forces students to question certain of the conventional rules about media practices and advertising impact. Case discussion may develop into a debate about the wisdom of this decision and this can be useful in discerning the underlying issues. This may aid students in being more critical about advertising practices, develop flexibility in their thinking, and more deeply explore the connection between advertising and consumer behavior. Formulating a convincing argument to support the decision can be a challenging exercise. Students can also be asked to critically challenge the decision and formulate alternative actions.

Most notably, case discussion of "Sunkist Growers, Inc." inevitably results in the discussion of the merits of branding lemons, a commodity product. The advantages of raising the branding issue in case discussion are multiple. Branding is a fundamental marketing issue and the case raises some basic issues to the concept. Case discussion can lead to a discussion of more theoretical issues of the effectiveness of branding and this may be relevant to the question of branding current products such as computer chips and medical services.

Students who may be future marketing managers may substantially benefit from the discussion and exploration of the branding issue. Branding issues inevitably arise in many situations commonly facing marketing managers such as new product introductions. Familiarity with concepts and practices of branding are particularly vital to competent practice of the discipline.

By studying the case, students will have formulated a paradigmatic example of branding which can inform other branding problems. The applicability of the case to other situations is, of course, highly contingent on a variety of factors which may not be fully explored in case discussions. It is therefore necessary to connect the specific example to a larger theoretical discussion of the branding issue.

Can branding lemons be compared to Intel's branding its Pentium computer chip? The categories, a food product and a computer component, are certainly different. In theory, the factor that is important in the decision to brand a product is the benefit of branding to reduce the consumer's perceived sense of risk. Branding the computer chip is a strategic move to differentiate the product and enhance value. In fact, the decision to brand the chip turned out to be costly to the organization. When problems developed in the Pentium chip, Intel reacted by offering consumers a free replacement of the chip at a cost estimated to be $500 million in order to support the Pentium brand name image.

CASE REASONING: SOME COMPARISONS

Perhaps the most outstanding difference between the two types of case analyses described above is their particular and distinctive relationship to their respective authorities. The authority for legal cases are courts of law, whose status is clearly demarcated in the institutional legal system and which are subject to review. On the other hand, authoritative decisions for the problems or issues raised by marketing cases are frequently viewed by students as being much more arbitrary, being subject only to their accountability within the business organization. Marketing decisions may be viewed by students to be subject to management fiat or hunches rather than a firmly rooted and clearly articulated, definitive sense of the consequences of marketing actions.

The sense that business decisions are at least partially arbitrary may be due to the sense that the consequences of management actions are not wholly predictable. Environmental factors are subject to rapid change and managers need to take their "best educated guess" to rapidly deal with a problem which requires management attention. For example, the solution to advertising branded lemons in the US is likely to substantially change as the consumer environment changes. Solutions to creating effective advertising are contingent upon many factors.

Case outcomes or the consequences of actions are distinctly different in these cases. Marketing decisions commonly involve putting organizational resources (including people's jobs) at risk in the future. The outcomes of a marketing decision are apparent at a later time and are frequently unclear or ambiguous. In fact, the actual outcome of a marketing case, what the organization in reality did, may not always be important to the study of the case. Decisions reached by marketing managers in business organizations may relate to habitual practices in that organization, which could be dull, mindless, uncritical, and otherwise completely unworthy of imitation.

What is frequently most important in marketing case is the managerial challenge, the opportunity that the case itself provides for analysis. On the other hand, the law involves issues of rights, fairness, and principle. These are based upon a person's or an organization's past actions. Outcomes of law cases not only establish precedents which are subject to review at higher levels, but judicial decisions generally have immediate and unambiguous consequences for the parties involved.

In both disciplines, decisions are highly dependent upon context and are certainly fallible. Courts may make a decision which can be later overturned, and even the US Supreme court has reversed its interpretation of the law. Marketing failures which can lead to business losses are certainly common.

Although fallible, the reasoning process is what is fundamental to the practice of the discipline. Learning the law involves the analysis of the court's reasoning about a decision. Learning the practice of marketing involves the study of past cases as guides or heuristics to learning how to handle business problems and to creatively react to opportunities which may arise in the future.

Cases are no mere collections of facts, they are important exercises in the reasoning process. More attention to cases to build accurate and precise reasoning can certainly improve the practice of these disciplines. Yet the process by which students critically examine their assumptions and explicitly connect these to concepts underlying decisions is too often inadequately examined and badly taught. Much more rigorous critical attention to the reasoning process by which marketing and law decisions are made is important to improving these disciplines.

IMPROVING REASONING SKILLS BY CONSIDERING CONTEXT

A key aspect of competency in both law and marketing is the development of the proper criteria to make comparisons and formulate judgments. Applying cases to practice aids in developing criteria, generally defined as the reasons or principles underlying decisions. In marketing, case analysis provides a "test case" to exercise judgment. In law, cases set precedent. Judicial decisions are a component of law.

New situations and new contexts create questions as to how principles apply. While there is a certain degree of arbitrariness to law and to marketing, developing precise criteria, understanding how cases apply to new situations, is an essential function of competency in these disciplines. Developing the right criteria puts judgment on a "sound foundation" [Lipman, 1991].

The examination of cases puts principles and concepts to the test and forces a new examination of the context of application. While the Fifth Amendment established the principle of "freedom from self incrimination," the Miranda v. Arizona court decision extended this principle to "freedom from self incrimination during custodial interrogation" as legally defensible. Each new instance asks if the same principles apply. Each new application tests if the criteria are sufficient to the new specific instance. If the principles do not hold, what makes the new instance an exception, what are the criteria that apply?

Similarly, Sunkist, Inc. established that a commodity product, namely lemons, could be branded and this yielded certain benefits to the organization. The case asks if the case of branding lemons is a rare or exceptional case. The branding concept easily applies to detergents, cereals, and dog food, but can the branding concept be extended to any type of product? The Sunkist case established that branding was not limited to lemons, a product of nature (rather than of human design and manufacture) is not an exception to the principle that branding can add value to the consumer. But there may still be other constraints which organizations may consider in making the effort to brand a product. Criteria are needed to establish when it is valuable to an organization to brand a product or service. The proper criteria are necessary to make these judgments and this requires consideration of the context to which the principles and judgments apply.

Cases provide examples which are vital in shaping the development of criteria. Student exposure to cases, and the rigorous examination and discussion which cases can bring about, builds a greater sensitivity to context and a greater precision in the application of criteria to that context. The development of criteria are essentially the formation of rules which sets limits and boundaries to concepts. This informs and improves judgment in a discipline.

THE INSTITUTIONAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT

Legal cases and marketing cases can be distinguished by the different modes of thinking that they engender. However, institutional and organizational differences also compliment and augment these differences. The respective institutions and organizations which have evolved to embody marketing and law disciplines are subject to some marked contrasts. Legal institutions have a long history while business organizations can quickly perish and radically change.

Since the law requires checks and balances, judicial decisions are thought to require a significant amount of consideration of existing law and its present factual context. One undesirable consequence of this is that the legal and regulatory system is often felt by participants to be painfully slow. In addition, certain laws, for example tax laws, are arcanely complex. New laws sometimes have to await case trials to put them to test and resolve their ambiguity. As the legal system has grown and the society has become more litigious, the legal system is increasingly thought to be burdensome by many citizens. The institutional cost of the legal process is shared by citizens who may certainly be able to use the revenue for better ends.

In contrast to this, businesses organizations are evolving in a distinctly different direction. Not only do business organizations strive to be expeditious, but speed has now become the buzzword. Being "fast to market" is a substantial advantage in many industries. Fast product development in high technology markets, quick delivery of industrial products, and fast reaction to customer complaints are all important strategic advantages which businesses have instituted to grow or simply to survive.

Reviewing decisions may be common in the court system, but reviewing managerial decisions is a luxury that many businesses can ill afford. Certainly there may be undesirable consequences of this. The short-term thinking orientation of business decisions may have some adverse consequences to the long-term health of business organizations.

Each discipline has something to learn from the other. The efficiency and speed which business needs to survive has much to teach to public legal institutions. The careful conceptualization of law, it consideration of fairness and justice, and its systematic review of decisions at higher levels could have much to contribute to the business organization. Certain concepts have already crossed disciplinary boundaries, such as programs to "re-engineer government" and government programs to be more "customer reactive." New types of thinking are needed in both the law and within marketing disciplines to stimulate innovation and promote flexibility.

SUMMARY

Instructors employing the case method of analysis in each of these disciples have some distinct challenges. Educators are challenged to select, develop, and promote the advancement and teaching of cases which develop accurate and precise reasoning. Attention to the development of criteria are important considerations to case analyses in each discipline and this is dependent upon building sensitivity to context. Also noted above is the importance of reflecting upon the institutional and organizational context which constrains the practice of these disciplines.

Since cases are at the central to what needs to be learned to succeed and become proficient in these disciplines, the examination of the reasoning process is especially important. The basis for reasoning with and about cases is significantly different in the various knowledge disciplines, due mainly to the different instrumentalities of these disciplines, the different goals and purposes to which the disciplines are put. Interdisciplinary comparisons such as the above are particularly important in bringing attention to the learning habits and patterns which these disciplines engender in students. Attention to these differences may promote better self-awareness among those who practice a discipline. This can create opportunities for new approaches and ignite creativity in these disciplines.

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ROLE PLAYING EXERCISES FOR TEACHING LEGAL PROCESS

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Abstract

The following are some reflections from practical experiences of role playing scenarios in teaching the introductory first year law subject "Legal Process" at Monash University. They are not intended as an in-depth research piece, but merely as some personal observations evaluating such teaching methods in this context and attempting to identify the kinds of experiences they provide to, and skills they promote in, students. Some comment is made about how these methods might be adapted for use in other disciplines. The exercises under discussion involve dispute resolution, negotiation, drafting, constitutional issues, and client interviewing, including use of interpreters.[2]

INTRODUCTION - ROLE PLAYING EXERCISES AND TEACHING FIRST YEAR LAW STUDENTS

In the Australian education system, first year university students commence studies in law at university direct from finishing their secondary school education. There is no need for them to take any form of undergraduate degree, such as a liberal arts degree, as a preliminary step before commencing studies in a law school.[3] The final year of secondary school is notoriously arduous in most Australian states. This is certainly the case in Victoria where Monash University is located and from which it pools most of its students.[4]

Thus, by the time these students arrive at university, having worked extremely hard through high school to get a sufficient aggregate score to secure a place in the Law Faculty, they are somewhat jaded and tired of studying. They generally expect nothing to be as hard as their final two years of secondary school which have, for as long as this academic can remember, typically been described by parents and teachers as "the hardest years of your life." They certainly do not expect their first year of study towards a law degree to be more demanding than, or even as demanding as, their previous year of study. Even if they did, there is always an adjustment period before they are, for the most part, psychologically ready to "get into the books." They must adjust to university life and the new freedoms, coupled with the new responsibilities, that it brings. Then there is the adjustment to studying a new discipline which is not really comparable to anything they have studied at school. Even high school subjects such as Legal Studies and Politics do not really prepare students to start learning to "think like a lawyer."

The task of the first year Legal Process teacher in a Faculty such as ours is therefore a difficult one. The subject matter must be dealt with in a way that is accessible and interesting to students who are not necessarily in the best frame of mind to cope with large volumes of new ideas and materials. It must also be presented in a way which has some immediate relevance to students, most of whom are seriously considering becoming practicing lawyers at the end of the day, but many of whom do not have a concrete idea of what practicing lawyers actually do.

The issue for us is further complicated by the fact that, within the structure of the Monash law degree, the first year Legal Process course is just that – a course about the *processes* and *methods* of the law and lawyers. It does not have an inherent core subject matter such as the more "black letter" law subjects like criminal law, tort, contract, property, constitutional and administrative law. It typically employs various areas of the law to illustrate ideas of how the law works, how it interacts with society and how and when laws can and should be changed.

Because of these factors, and other issues discussed below, the use of simple role playing exercises, are increasingly becoming a very valuable part of the curriculum. Over the years they have proved to be very rewarding educational and interpersonal experiences for staff and students alike. As the semesters go by, we are constantly reworking and refining our ideas as to how best to utilize such teaching methods within the law curriculum.

The following discussion concentrates on three such exercises that I have specifically developed with early-year undergraduate law students in mind. I have utilised all of them in the context of Legal Process teaching. Some can also be used in other subjects because of the specific skills and issues on which they focus; for example, the second exercise, which I now use in Legal Process, was developed initially for contract tutorials.

One of the exercises was developed by a colleague at the Law Faculty[5] specifically for her Legal Process and Professional Practice students. I can comment on its use in practice, having utilised it myself with a few minor modifications, but do not profess to be an expert on its development. It is included in the following discussion for completeness as, in practice, it complements two of the other exercises in the context of the Legal Process course in a very rewarding way. The exercises under discussion basically fall into four categories:

- Dispute resolution;
- Negotiation and drafting;
- Client interviewing and use of interpreters; and,
- Federal constitutional law and legal history.

Each of these exercises, to a greater or lesser extent, involves students in the class taking on different roles in varying contexts. The roles are as diverse as lawyer, client, interpreter, mediator, participant in historical Convention Debate and Chair of Debate. Some role plays involve only small groups of actual role players with the rest of the class acting as observers and then as a panel of commentators. Thus, in all cases, students get a chance to participate verbally as much or as little as they choose. Quieter students are encouraged to participate as soon as they feel comfortable and, naturally, attempts are made to make everyone in the class feel comfortable about working as a team and participating in discussions.

The mechanics of each of the role plays are considered and evaluated below. However, before considering each exercise in detail, it is worth briefly noting some of the general benefits of utilizing this method of teaching in respect of first year law students.

GENERAL BENEFITS OF ROLE PLAYING EXERCISES IN THE CONTEXT OF FIRST YEAR LAW TEACHING

The general benefits of using a role playing exercises when teaching first year Legal Process, or indeed any other vocational course of study, may seem so obvious as to go without saying. I will therefore treat them only briefly here. However, I feel that it is important to at least consider them in passing before going on to a more detailed discussion of specific exercises. This is because there is little value in undertaking any kind of educational approach without first considering its inherent benefits.

Role plays for the sake of role plays or because they seem "trendy" will be of far less value to teachers and students if the reasons for their use have not been considered and evaluated first. Without clear cut aims in mind, experiments in teaching can fall flat. They may be "fun, but they may not really be creating any lasting or useful addition to a student's educational experience.

Naturally, leeway must be given for serendipitous events where a teacher tries out a new method or exercise off the cuff to see what happens. These may lead to very successful and lasting approaches to teaching and learning. However, even in such a case, it is still worth reflecting on the experiment after the fact and discussing it with students and colleagues to identify: (1) what it is actually achieving in practice;

(2) how it is achieving it; and, (3) whether there is any way it might be improved to accentuate certain desired outcomes or incorporate additional ones. In a way, this paper is part of that very process. I am here reflecting on things I have done in the classroom in the past to collect my thoughts as to the outcomes I have achieved and am seeking additional feedback as to how my approaches might be broadened or improved.

In undertaking this initial "reflective" thought process, my views are that the general benefits inherent in using role plays of the kind detailed below, focusing on real life issues and skills, include:

1. **Bringing the subject to life**. Role plays can bring alive what might otherwise be a somewhat "dry" subject. An introductory Legal Process course can run the risk of being taught in a way which focuses purely on learning how to use a law library, how to read legislation, how to read cases and memorizing important dates in legal history and perhaps some fundamental constitutional concepts. Many legal academics in Australia were subjected to introductory courses of this kind and the lack of interesting content can promote lack of interest in the students. At its best, the students may consider the subject a useless "write off" at the end of the year. At its worst, this approach may lead students already struggling with university life and law in general to question whether law is the right course for them and possibly to give up on it altogether.
2. **Enhancement of interpersonal skills**. Although it is probably so obvious as to go without saying, interactive teaching involving role playing assists in teaching basic interpersonal skills including verbal and written expression, analysis of problems and problem-solving. It is vital for good lawyers to develop such skills, particularly early on in their legal education if possible. This argument is also equally applicable to students undertaking courses in other vocational disciplines which may lead to professional careers in which written and verbal expression of ideas, confident presentation and analytical skills are important. Examples would include politics, medicine, business administration and psychology, but there are obviously many others.
3. **Involvement of students in their education**. Involving students in their own education is an important way of making the education relevant and memorable. Where students are expected to actively participate in exercises relevant to the core curriculum of a subject, they arguably work harder on the issue(s) in question than they otherwise might. They might also become more personally invested in the matters at hand which, in turn, is likely to have a more lasting effect on their education than if they simply read a passage about the particular issue in a book. Again, this is relevant to a broader range of disciplines than law.
4. **Empowerment of students**. As a corollary to the previous point about *involving* students in their own education, using role play methods arguably also *empowers* students in relation to their own education. Being a key player in a role play or chairing, or even simply contributing to, a class discussion can give a student a feeling of greater *control* over his or her education, rather than playing the part of a passive recipient of information provided by an authoritative teacher figure.
5. **Relevance to "real life**." Using simulations of real life situations in the classroom is a simple and effective way of demonstrating the relevance of certain skills and ideas to real life situations. This is particularly true of vocational courses such as law and arguably also business studies, marketing, medicine, psychology and various paramedical fields where communication, problem-solving and client contact are important. It is a simple and efficient way of highlighting difficulties of dealing with other people in simulated real life situations, including difficulties in communicating ideas effectively and analyzing other people's agendas in discussions etc. It also introduces the kinds of real life situations that people undertaking such vocational courses with a view to practicing in the relevant discipline will be faced with in the "real world." This helps students to be better informed about the career paths they are choosing and to have more relevant information with which to make decisions about their chosen vocations.
6. **Cost effectiveness**. Simple role plays in the classroom are also a very cost effective way of teaching compared to more high technology options for interactive teaching and learning.
7. **Operational efficiencies in teaching**. Again, an obvious point about role plays is that they can provide valuable educational experiences with minimal preparation on the part of the students. Thus, where

there is a problem with transition from school to university and teachers desire to avoid "overloading" students in their first few weeks or months of a new course, role plays can be an ideal solution. Additionally, they are useful during heavy assessment periods in other subjects; for example, if a Legal Process teacher knows that students have a number of weeks in a row with several due dates for assignments or class tests in other subjects, that teacher can concentrate on educationally valuable, but low preparation, role playing exercises. Students are therefore not deterred from coming to class at such times on the grounds that they "haven't prepared" set materials and might be asked a difficult question which they cannot answer.

8. **Increasing students' confidence in their own abilities**. Involving students in the types of verbal participation related to role plays increases their confidence in speaking in front of others in the non-threatening environment of the classroom as well as exposing them to ideas and presentation styles of their fellow students. This should have the effect of increasing their confidence in themselves, in dealing with new subject matter and in being aware that their peers are all pretty much "in the same boat" in terms of knowledge and presentation. Students often feel better about their own level of knowledge and presentation abilities if they can, in effect, compare themselves to others in the context of role plays and class discussion. This can be particularly important for first year law students who often tend to feel that everyone else in the class is operating at the level of senior counsel while they are beneath the level of competence of an articled clerk. Encouraging them all to participate together as a cohesive group in a joint exercise can build up feelings of belonging and camaraderie within the class and can diminish individual feelings of inadequacy.

Despite the fact that the Legal Process course has the disadvantage of not containing an inherent and distinctive subject matter and focuses on *processes* rather than *legal principle and precedent*, it has the advantage that by incorporating role plays it is one of the best placed subjects to achieve the above aims. These aims often cannot be adequately incorporated into many other law subjects because of time constraints in terms of getting through the demands of often quite heavy curricula in terms of simply teaching cases, legislation and principles.

Further, at Monash University, sufficient financial resources have been put into the Legal Process course to allow it to be taught in classes of between 40 and 60 students on average whereas a number of the other core units may have up to 200, and sometimes more, students in a class. This allows Legal Process teachers greater flexibility to experiment with interactive teaching methods in a comparatively small group setting on the assumption that teaching in such a way is particularly beneficial and desirable for students in the first year of their university studies.

Having dealt with some of the specific benefits inherent in the use of "real world" simulation role plays, I now want to consider the specific exercises that I have used over the last few years in teaching the Legal Process course to first year law students. Many of these benefits will be predominantly relevant to law teaching, although some will have wider applications. I will attempt to highlight such areas throughout the following discussion.

FIRST YEAR LEGAL PROCESS - SPECIFIC EXERCISES

ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION EXERCISE

Methodology

The "alternative dispute resolution exercise" is one of the first role play exercises that I undertake relatively early in the first semester of the law course. It involves the distribution to students of details of a fact scenario involving a dispute which has arisen over the delivery of newspapers by a local newsagent to a customer in circumstances where the customer is arguing that he has not received newspapers for which he has been charged. The necessary evidence relating to the route taken and newspapers actually delivered by the delivery person in question is unavailable due to his absence from the jurisdiction. Although not the most exciting fact scenario in the world, it has the following advantages:

1. It is based on a small claim which I dealt with in a pre-trial conference in practice which gives me a "real

life" perspective on it to bring to the students and, as a corollary, gives the students an impression of what "real life" matters can be like. It therefore has an air of "authenticity" about it, if you like.

2. It brings in the difficulties of attempting to deal with situations, as lawyers often do, where the matter would appear to be very simple, but without the necessary evidence there is no "easy solution." It thus forces the students to think creatively about the parties' options. Additionally they consider whether some matters are best left to the courts / small claims tribunals to impose solutions where the solutions must, of necessity, be arbitrary because of lack of evidence or whether alternative dispute resolution methods are always useful.
3. It gives the students an idea of the shape and form of a civil matter arising between two private citizens in a year in which they are also studying Criminal Law and Procedure as a separate subject. This creates some balance in their first year education in terms of learning about practice and procedure as, although criminal law can be very dramatic and leave a lasting impression on first year students, in practice most lawyers will deal predominantly with civil matters.

The actual exercise is set out in Appendix 1, including the fact scenario and the instructions to students so there is no need to go into them in detail here. However, I have undertaken this exercise in different ways, one of which proved somewhat more successful in practice and varies slightly from the details in the appendix.

Originally, the entire class was divided into groups of four people, taking on the roles of the newsagent, the customer and their respective lawyers. Each group was asked to try to come to a negotiated solution to the problem, using the solicitors as "mediators." Each "party" to the dispute was encouraged to take a few minutes with his or her "legal counsel" before the group mediation session in order to work out their respective strategies for the mediation. Students were encouraged to consider issues such as:

- the respective "bottom lines" of each party in the negotiations;
- ways of resolving the dispute without having to attach blame or fault to either party;
- evidence needed to support the parties' respective stories;
- difficulties in obtaining any such evidence; and,
- alternatives to a negotiated / mediated solution.

Students were given a one hour class to work on the dispute and the first half of the next one hour class was devoted to general class discussion of the students' experiences in attempting to negotiate a solution to the problem and a comparison of the different outcomes. During the class in which the exercise was undertaken, I moved from group to group assisting them with specific queries.

The students obviously enjoyed the exercise greatly when conducted in this manner, many really "getting into character" and throwing out lines to their fellow students such as "I'll see you in court!" However, I was concerned that the educational experience might be taking a back seat to the game playing aspect. I largely formed this impression because the class discussion in the session following the exercise tended to focus on potential solutions to the factual problem, each group comparing its solution (or lack thereof) to the others. Unfortunately, little thought had gone into an evaluation of the role played by the "lawyers" as negotiators / mediators or how the mediation methodology compared to actual litigation.

The following year I used the exercise, I changed the instructions and format slightly so the class could focus more as a group on the alternative dispute resolution *processes* and the role of lawyers. I again scheduled the classes early in first semester, but during sessions where half the class was involved in a research exercise in the library. Thus, I undertook the role play twice, each time with a separate half of the class, thus keeping the size of each class group down to 20 to 25 students.

I primed the students by first talking to them about various alternative dispute resolution methods such as conciliation, arbitration, negotiation and mediation. In advance, I handed out a number of very simple, easy to follow articles from the local Law Institute Journal on mediation and the role of lawyers and mediators which were written specifically for practitioners becoming involved in alternative dispute resolution for the first time. These pieces again helped to give the unit on alternative dispute resolution a "real life" emphasis and relevance.

This time around, I only appointed *one* group to undertake the role play, and they did so in front of the rest of the class as spectators / commentators. Additionally, I appointed an independent "mediator" to chair the mediation session such that the individual lawyers did not have to take on the entire burden of this role. I gave each party with his or her "lawyer" five or ten minutes outside the classroom at the beginning of the session to work on respective medication strategies. I also gave specific instructions to the mediator on how to handle the mediation, largely based on some simple guidelines for mediation appearing in the Law Institute Journal. I then instructed the larger group to act as spectators and commentators on various matters including:

- whether gender differences appeared to affect the approach of the clients, lawyers and mediators to their tasks and to relating to each other;
- whether they (that is, other class members) had any specific criticisms of attitudes taken on by any of the role players to their task, particularly the lawyers, focusing on whether they were too "adversarial" in their approach or whether they were open to suggestion from the mediator and / or the other side, whether they spoke "for" their client or let the latter speak and the relative advantages and disadvantages inherent in these approaches; and,
- again, whether the dispute in question would have been better dealt with by a court imposed solution; that is, whether mediation was an effective tool for dealing with this type of dispute.

Another minor change from the previous attempt at the exercise was that I sent all the parties out of the room in turn and asked each lawyer-client pair to briefly simulate, in front of the class, the initial client interview. This involved the lawyer extracting the factual details from the client about the dispute and working out their "bottom line" for the negotiations. This appeared to give more "depth" to the exercise and allowed the class to compare the attitudes of each lawyer-client pair to the dispute, and to each other, before the mediation with their conduct in the mediation session.

Evaluation

I found this permutation of the exercise to be much more successful in a pedagogical sense, and still engaging and enjoyable for the class. In this attempt, not only did the participants get an idea of some of the roles that lawyers may be asked to play in practice, other than drafting documents and conducting litigation, but they also had a chance to concentrate in a much more in depth and analytical way on issues such as:

- When and whether lawyers should be asked to take on a more conciliatory and less adversarial role in relation to disputes;
- how lawyers should and do relate to their clients in this context; and,
- the advantages and possible disadvantages of using an independent mediator to resolve disputes outside the court system.

The feedback I received from the students in relation to this exercise was very positive and I believe carrying out the exercise early in the semester also greatly assisted students with preparation for their first assessable piece of written work which was a "court report." This report involved students going to courts and other dispute resolution forums in groups and observing proceedings with a view to evaluating proceedings in that particular court or tribunal in terms of issues such as:

- whether the court / tribunal was set up in terms of location, procedures and accessibility to meet the needs of the disputants that came before it;
- whether legal representation was necessary or desirable in the particular court / tribunal or might possibly be a hindrance to the disputants;
- whether disputants observed by the parties seemed satisfied with the outcomes provided by the court/ tribunal and the processes involved in hearing the disputes, and,
- how the processes, proceedings and solutions in courts differed from those in administrative tribunals and identifying some of the inherent advantages and disadvantages of bringing a dispute before one or the other type of forum.

Having first simulated a dispute resolution exercise in class, focusing on alternatives to litigation and the lawyer's role in such a scenario gave useful background to this written exercise and seemed to increase the students' confidence in their understanding of what was being asked of them in the written report.

Comparative Applications

Although clearly aimed at teaching law students about the role of lawyers in dispute resolution, exercises such as this one probably have comparative applications with or without minor modifications in other disciplines. An exercise focusing on dispute resolution may clearly be of use to any vocational training which involves training people to deal with heated negotiations and attempts to resolve "deadlocked" situations. This might include areas of management, psychology and welfare workers.

Swapping roles and allowing participants to take on the varying roles of independent mediator, complainant and representative (legal or otherwise), participants can come to have valuable experience of what it feels like to be involved in a polarised dispute from a number of different perspectives. This could lead to greater empathy for other parties involves in disputes and to improved abilities and empowerment to resolve disputes in a number of fields without having to take more drastic action which can be both expensive and time consuming.

Additionally such exercises are good for enhancing verbal communication skills. This is particularly so where the rest of the class are brought in as external commentators who are invited to participate themselves by way of evaluation of the exercise in a group setting.

NEGOTIATION AND DRAFTING EXERCISE

Methodology

This exercise was originally developed as a "fill in" contract tutorial for second year law students. However, it has proved equally useful in teaching first year Legal Process students. It has been a fun and involving way to introduce students to good legal writing skills and techniques. The version of the exercise included in Appendix 2 is in the form in which it was distributed to contracts students. However, I distribute it to Legal Process students in substantially the same form.

Basically, the exercise involves working in small groups of 2 to 4 students each – 2 students if only the parties to the negotiations are to be represented, and 3 or 4 students if either or both party is to have "legal representation" in the exercise. The students are given a simple fact situation involving negotiations for a contract for personal services – that is, the performance services in Holly's theater of Mervyn the Mystical Magician. The groups are asked to spend most of the class attempting to identify the types of terms each party would expect to see included in the final contract by taking on the relevant characters and simulating a negotiation session.

They are then asked to either work together or delegate one group member to draft a small number (usually anywhere from about one to six) of the clauses that they have negotiated as homework over the next week. A small number of groups is also asked to volunteer to submit their draft clauses, anonymously if they prefer, for general class discussion the following week. This gives the class as a general group something to work on in a constructive discussion while allowing the other groups to compare the clauses discussed in class with their own draft clauses. I usually transpose a handful of these clauses on to overhead transparencies or class handouts for distribution and discussion in the subsequent class.

Although there is some focus on the process of negotiation in this exercise, this is largely left to the previous alternative dispute resolution exercise, this second exercise focusing more on clear and simple legal drafting.

Evaluation

Again, this exercise proves reasonably popular with the students in terms of enjoyment levels and it also appears to have significant educational value. The class discussion in particular is a very good place to talk about organization and expression of ideas in written work which is relevant not only for drafting contracts and client letters, but also for writing legal research essays and other written work in other university courses.

The exercise again has the advantage of exposing students to another significant part of what "real life" lawyers do in practice and concentrating on how a good lawyer should draft contracts and documents. It brings home the idea that good legal writing is not drafting in complex "legalese" but in simple English that a client without four years of law school behind them can understand. This is a good lesson to expose early year law students to before they become engrossed in the language of the law and lose their objectivity about how mystifying it can all be for those who have not had similar educational experiences.

Comparative Applications

Again, this type of exercise has wider potential applications than for early year law students. Exercises such as this involving the negotiation of contracts and reduction of the agreed terms into simple English which third parties can easily follow if necessary will be useful to anyone engaged in a professional field or course of study where such skills are of relevance. This would certainly include various business related fields as well as potentially people working in health and welfare fields.

Further, an exercise such as this one may easily be used in conjunction with a dispute resolution exercise such as that previously discussed. It would be possible to set up an involved scenario where parties to a "dispute" in a given field were asked to simulate the dispute in front of an independent mediator with a view to coming to a mediated solution which is then reduced to simple writing for future reference. Negotiations between the parties about the drafting of the final agreement, perhaps going through several drafts of an agreement with one party drafting it and the other making suggested amendments and vice versa, could also be incorporated into the exercise.

CLIENT INTERVIEWING AND USE OF INTERPRETERS

Methodology

I will only touch on this exercise briefly as it is not one that I have developed myself[6] and I have only used it once, but found it a very rewarding experience on that occasion. The exercise will only work if pairs of speakers of a second language can be found in the class, although the language itself is irrelevant. Basically, the situation involves a simulated client interview about a motor vehicle accident in which a small child has been injured. The client is an English speaking tourist in a foreign country who has caused the accident and who has had to seek the assistance of a local lawyer who does not speak English. An interpreter who speaks both languages has to be utilized. Hence, the need for two students who speak the same foreign language.

Each participant is given both a common set of facts about the accident and also a separate sheet of facts which are known only to their character. The lawyer's brief is to communicate to the client, through the interpreter, issues like the seriousness of injuring a child under the foreign legal system and the possible consequences for insurance, criminal liability etc. The client's brief is to try to communicate that the police led him / her to believe that the accident did not have particularly serious consequences, that there were sympathetic witnesses to the accident and that the client must leave the country within the next few days or his / her visa will expire. The interpreter's brief is merely to try and accurately convey each person's words to the other.

The exercise is carried out by one or two such groups of three students in front of the class for the purposes of subsequent class discussion focusing on techniques of client interviewing and difficulties of using interpreters in this context. In fact, when I undertook this exercise with my class, I had one group of two simulate the exercise purely in English; that is, the first group played out the scenario that the client had managed to find an English speaking lawyer in the foreign country. Thus, each person's individual brief remained the same, but there was no need for an interpreter. Then, the second group undertook the same role-play but with the foreign language and the interpreter added to complicate the issue. This allowed the class in general discussion to compare pure client interviewing techniques in English with the difficulties of trying to do the same thing with an interpreter.

Evaluation

Again, this exercise was useful in exposing students to another area of practice in which "real life" lawyers need to become proficient; that is, effective client communication. In this respect, the exercise is quite similar to the alternative dispute resolution exercise discussed above.

Where this exercise is particularly valuable is in highlighting the difficulties of working with interpreters, not just for the parties themselves, but also for the interpreters in trying to make sense of what is being said and communicate it effectively to each party. When my class undertook the exercise it took more than twice as long for the group with the interpreter to communicate much less information than the purely English speaking group and the information was not communicated nearly as effectively.

The student playing the interpreter made some very poignant comments about how difficult her role has been particularly as she was not as proficient in German as the student playing the role of the lawyer. This was a very relevant comment as, because of the multi cultural nature of Melbourne society, interpreters are often used in courts and tribunals and not all of them are "official" court-appointed interpreters so they are not all as proficient as one might like in the language in question. Some are friends or family of one of the parties who speak a similar, but different, dialect of the language in question. This can be particularly true of a number of the Asian languages.

Further, where friends and family act as interpreters, they can have a tendency to editorialize rather than simply translating. Although this practice was not observed in the role play itself, many class members commented, in subsequent class discussion, that they had witnessed such problems in undertaking the observational research for their written court reports earlier in the year.

Overall, this was again a very useful educational experience and was well placed at a time of the course after the dispute resolution exercise and the written court report so students could draw on their earlier experiences in commenting on this exercise.

Comparative Applications

Again, exercises such as this involving the use of interpreters would be useful for anyone in a professional field or course of study involving use of interpreters and dealing with people in other languages. Business and welfare again seem obvious candidates here. Further, the usefulness of such an exercise may be specific to particular geographic areas; for instance, areas with more multi cultural populations might find more relevance in such training than other areas. Additionally, areas where most people speak a number of languages may have less need of such training as potential language barriers may be less likely to be a problem.

FEDERATION EXERCISE

Methodology

This exercise is really a bit "out of sync" with the previous exercises which all deal directly with lawyers' skills in a modern day context. I have included this exercise here because it has proved to be a useful and fun way of dealing with the often dry topic of legal and constitutional history and it does, incidentally, also touch on verbal negotiation and communication skills which are important to lawyers and others.

Basically, this exercise was my last resort at trying to teach first year law students about how federation came about and what it is in a comprehensible but fun way.[7] I ask the whole class to split up into groups representing the different colonies from late 19th century Australia, which later all became the various states and territories, and I include a group representing New Zealand which was involved in the original federation debates. Two chairmen are then appointed from the class to chair a debate on whether or not the colonies should join together into a federal nation and, if so, the types of issues that should be incorporated into the new written federal constitution.

Prior to conducting the role play, students are given some reading on the concerns of the different colonies entering into the negotiations; for instance, some of the smaller states were concerned about unequal representation in the Commonwealth parliament which ultimately led to the creation of the Senate purportedly as a "States' House." However, I try to keep the pre-reading and discussion minimal because I am interested in what the students come up with as a matter of common sense and initial response to the idea of federation before their minds are clouded with historical readings concerning the actual facts. We then go on to tackle some of this reading after the exercise and they revisit a number of these issues in the third year subject Constitutional Law in any case.

Evaluation

I found this exercising to be a particularly rewarding way of bringing home to first year students what federation was all about and explaining to them how – and why – Australia's written Constitution came to be developed along the lines it was, leading now to an arguably pressing need for reform. The students seemed to enjoy the exercise, and generally evidenced a surprisingly significant and clear comprehension of the issues involved despite their lack of background in the area. An interesting result in the first year I conducted this exercise was that the draft Constitution put together by the class very closely resembled the actual Australian federal Constitution but with the notable inclusions of concerns about the environment. Such concerns obviously were not of paramount importance to the founders of federation in the late 19th century.

Additionally, the appointment of students to chair the debate is a good way of exposing "difficult to control" students (if there are any in the class) to the difficulties of controlling a class. In the first year I undertook this exercise, I appointed two quite rowdy students as chairmen of the debate and did not give them a lot of help in keeping the rest of the class under control. However, I did intervene occasionally when the debate was becoming particularly heated or reaching a stalemate. One of the chairmen commented to me after the class what an interesting experience it had been and how he had never realized how difficult it was to maintain a class atmosphere where people were always free to contribute, but in a controlled way.[8] Thus, the exercise can be used to teach such specific personal skills as well if the teacher feels there may be any value in it.

Again, this exercise has the advantage of introducing students to verbal skills of communication, negotiation and debate as well as to working in teams to try to produce a tangible and useful result. Working as a team in this way seems to encourage students to be more confident in their own abilities to express themselves and not to feel inadequate next to their peers. They tended to find that they were all operating at a reasonably similar level of sophistication in terms of ideas and presentation. Letting the students basically chair and control the whole exercise arguably also gives them a feel of empowerment and responsibility in relation to their own educational activities.

Comparative Applications

There may not be many comparative applications of this exercise as it really was developed specifically to teach a particular item of legal history and constitutional law in the Australian federal context. However, the idea of using a role play of a historical event in teaching within a particular vocation might prove useful in other disciplines in which it is important to develop a good and "living" grasp of one or more specific historical events for the purposes of better understanding a current system or process. I will leave this issue to relevant educators to ponder and would welcome any views that others may have on it.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Although the above discussion may have seemed a bit piecemeal and reflective, it is really only intended to emphasise that simple role playing exercises can be a very valuable tool in legal education and, by parity of reasoning, vocational training in other fields. It is a simple, cheap and effective method to improve a student's understanding of his or her chosen field as well as of particular skills that may need to be developed within that field. It also increases general interpersonal skills and builds confidence at its most successful.

In an era in which "straight lecturing" and "book learning" is fast becoming a thing of the past, and rightly so in most areas, and multimedia and hi-technology teaching a thing of the future, and in some cases, the present, it is worth reflecting on the value of low-technology, low cost, but highly interactive, methods of teaching such as these simple exercises. They provide ample benefits to students and teachers alike and, if reworked and refined over the years, can continue to do so in an enhanced way. They encourage the exchange of ideas between teachers and students, students and teachers, and students amongst themselves in an empowering and involving way. It is my hope that such methods do continue to be utilised in a positive and ever-developing way and are not completely overtaken by the novelty value of computer simulations and the like in the near future. In my view, there is a place in the curriculum for a multitude of different types of teaching methods. However, to be at their most effect, they must all be carefully and continually monitored and evaluated in terms of the aims they might achieve and whether there is any scope for improvement in their operation.

Hopefully, increased forums for sharing ideas about teaching methodology as we all enter the next millennium will assist in the process of ensuring that an appropriate balance is struck between the uses of different methods in various fields and in maximizing the benefits of each approach taken.

APPENDIX 1
LEGAL PROCESS 1997

STREAM H

DISPUTE RESOLUTION EXERCISE

For this exercise, students are required to work in groups of four during class time to attempt to work out a practical solution to the following dispute.

Facts

Shelly owns a news agency in Boronia which she bought two years ago from Fred. Part of the business of the news agency involves organizing delivery of newspapers to customers in the morning. For these purposes, Shelly hires high school students to make the newspaper rounds. Each student is given a map containing his or her "delivery route" and details of which newspapers are to be delivered to which customers along the relevant route. This system was instigated by Fred before he sold the news agency to Shelly. Not many of the delivery routes have changed since Shelly took over the business.

Andy is one of the students hired by Shelly to deliver newspapers. He has been working for Shelly for 12 months. Prior to this time, his route was handled by Carrie (who had worked for Fred for two years and then continued on at the news agency for the first year Shelly ran the business). There have been no changes to Andy's delivery instructions or his delivery route since he took over from Carrie. (Carrie gave up her job at the news agency because she has completed high school and she has now moved interstate.)

Jim lives in Boronia and had arranged with Fred (when he still owned the news agency) for the morning paper, *The Town Crier*, to be delivered to Jim's house every morning. Jim was aware that Fred had sold the news agency to Shelly. Soon after the sale, Jim had realized that *The Town Crier* was no longer being delivered to his home. He assumed that all of the old newspaper routes had been canceled with the change of ownership of the business.

Rather than arrange with Shelly for the paper to be delivered again, Jim decided that he would simply walk to the local milk bar each morning and buy a copy for himself. He proceeded to do this for two years.

Last week, Jim received an invoice from Shelly charging him for two years' worth of newspaper deliveries (at a total cost of $500). He telephoned Shelly to explain that he had received no newspapers for the past two years only to be informed by Shelly that she believed that Andy had been delivering newspapers to his home during that time.

Shelly explained that Jim's account card for the newspapers had apparently fallen behind a filing cabinet in the news agency sometime after Fred had sold the business to her and that, as a result, Shelly had neglected to charge Jim for the newspapers for the past two years. (She said that she had only just found the account card during her bi-annual spring clean of the shop.)

As Andy's delivery route had not been changed to exclude Jim's house, Shelly assumed that the newspapers were still being delivered to Jim and, when she found the account card, she realized her mistake in failing to charge Jim for any of the papers. She said that she was sure that Andy would be quite happy to confirm that he had been delivering *The Town Crier* to Jim's house every morning, but that Andy had just gone on three months' leave to travel overseas with his family. She had instructed the "fill in" delivery person, Kate, not to deliver any newspapers to Jim until the matter of payment was sorted out.

Shelly has threatened to bring legal action against Jim if the account is not paid.

INSTRUCTIONS

In your groups of four, each person should take on the role of one of the following characters:

Shelly
Jim
Shelly's solicitor
Jim's solicitor

The idea of the exercise is to simulate a "mediation session" between the parties to be conducted with the aid of their solicitors in order to try and reach a solution for the dispute without having to go to court. (Keeping the matter out of court will save time and money for each of the parties.)

Each party may want to confer briefly with his or her solicitor before the meeting to work out their arguments and their "bottom line" for resolving the dispute.

Then, the entire group should attempt to simulate a mediation conference and work out a solution to the problem.

Some issues you may have to consider:

- What is each party's "bottom line"? (i.e. what is the least favored solution each will be prepared to accept?)
- Are there any ways of solving the problem without deciding that either party is necessarily "in the wrong"? (remember parties can agree to whatever kind of settlement of the dispute they like so you can think laterally here)
- What sort of evidence might each party want to have access to in support of his or her story? Are there any difficulties in obtaining this evidence?
- What should the parties do if they cannot obtain the evidence they need to support their respective stories?
- Might there be any advantages in taking this matter to court to have a judge decide it rather than trying to find a mediated / compromise solution?

APPENDIX 2
NEGOTIATING AND DRAFTING A CONTRACT

TUTORIAL INSTRUCTIONS

Before we look at Offer and Acceptance (see previously distributed tutorial problem sheet), we will have a brief look at how a written contract may come into being. This is a useful exercise because, as you progress through the contracts course, you will notice that most of the focus is on interpreting contracts that have previously been finalized. This is because case law on contracts (which we use as the basis of our course of study) must, of necessity, be based on contracts which have already been finalized but over which some dispute has later arisen.

As an example for tutorial purposes, we will consider the negotiation and drafting of a contract for personal services.

We will consider a specific fact situation involving two parties who wish to negotiate a contract with each other. We will first look at the negotiation process; that is, how the parties might negotiate the terms of their contract and what terms each party would require to be included in the contract. Then we will briefly look at how some of those terms might be drafted, bearing in mind that if something goes wrong with the contract, it may have to be interpreted by judges who were not involved in the negotiation process.

Problem

Consider the following fact situation.

Holly Higgins owns a theater in downtown Melbourne. She runs a business in the course of which she books various performers to perform in her theater and then promotes their performances and hopefully makes a profit out of the ticket sales.

She has heard that "Mervyn the Mystical Magician" (alias Mervyn Smith from Phoenix, Arizona) is interested in touring Australia with his new act. He is a world famous magician who performs magical tricks to music with the help of his beautiful assistant, Wanda.

Holly has approached Mervyn's agent, Justin Case, about the possibility of booking Mervyn to perform in her theater in the event that he goes ahead with his proposed Australian tour. She would expect that Mervyn would perform for at least three weeks in her theater and that he would perform his act a minimum of six times per week during the course of the that time.

Assume that Mervyn is interested in Holly's proposal and has authorized Justin to negotiate a contract with Holly on his behalf.

Questions / Tasks

1. What terms might Mervyn expect to see included in the contract?
2. What terms might Holly want to be included in the contract?
3. Divide up into groups (half of the class representing Mervyn and the other half representing Holly) and try to negotiate terms which satisfy both parties along the lines of the issues identified in response to questions 1 and 2.
4. In your groups, pick one or two of the major terms of the contract as negotiated by your group and try to draft written contractual clauses which clearly express the bargain as negotiated by the parties so that a third party with no knowledge of the negotiations could understand what was meant by the parties.

ENDNOTES

1. B.A. (Melb) (Psychology), B.A. (Hons) (La Trobe) (Drama), LL.B. (Hons) (Melb), LL.M. (Monash), Lecturer in Law, Monash University.

2. I note at the outset that most of the work done at the Law Faculty at Monash on client interviewing and use of interpreters has been carried out, and role plays prepared by, Associate Professor Susan Campbell. Although I am able to briefly touch on this issue, interested readers may wish to contact Associate Professor Campbell for further thoughts and information in this particular area. She can be contacted c/o Law Faculty, Monash University, Wellington Road, Clayton, Victoria, 3168, Australia; Telephone: (61)(3)9905 3356; Fax: (61)(3) 9905 5305.

3. Many students in fact undertake such degrees concurrently with their law studies. Most Australian universities which offer law degrees offer what are known as "combined" degrees where students are able to combine two courses of study simultaneously such as Law/Arts, Law/Science, Law/Commerce, Law/Business Studies etc.

4. Again, by way of explanation, it is typical for Australian students to attend university in the same city and State in which they undertook their secondary studies.

5. See note 2 (above).

6. As mentioned above, it has been developed by Associate Professor Susan Campbell in the Law Faculty at Monash University who has had many years experience as both a teacher and Chief Examiner in the subjects Legal Process and Professional Practice.

7. I should note here by way of explanation that, for some reason, law students enter university with very little idea that Australia actually has a written federal constitution (let alone written state constitutions) and with a very scant notion of what "federalism" actually is. Research has recently been carried out to show that less than half of Australia's high school students are aware that we have a written constitution. This issue will hopefully be addressed by the various state education systems in the future.

8. We have generally found this to be a particular problem with 18 year old students straight out of the secondary school system who are just tasting adult life and relative "freedom" for the first time. Later year law students seem to be much quieter and easier to keep under control, if less enthusiastic about their studies.

COMMUNITY "CLIENT" CASE STUDIES FOSTER COMPETENCE AND CONFIDENCE IN NURSING STUDENTS

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Abstract

Senior level students in many baccalaureate nursing programs frequently experience considerable anxiety over their readiness to begin practicing as a nurse. They often are unsure whether they possess the clinical skills and decision-making ability to provide safe and effective care. To address this problem, we developed an experiential learning activity in which students used case studies and community volunteer "clients" to reinforce their knowledge and skills. Self-selected pairs of students chose a case study and engaged with a "client" who had been coached on how to enact that health problem. Learning resources such as textbooks and the Internet enabled students to strengthen or refresh their knowledge prior to the arrival of the "clients". Facilitated group discussion fostered integration of theory, research and practice as well as interpersonal skills. The activity has been conducted three times. Evaluations by students have been positive and have been applied toward refining the Community "Client" Case Study initiative. Advantages of this kind of experiential learning activity, recommendations for further use, and salient issues for nursing education are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

A prevalent finding at baccalaureate degree nursing schools is the concern among senior level students over their readiness for clinical practice. As graduation approaches, many students experience anxiety over their ability to perform skills such as intravenous punctures and detailed physical assessments on clients/patients. Faculty frequently hear students lament that they have not had an opportunity to insert a catheter since their first year, or that they have administered only one or two injections. They sometimes need guidance in transferring communication skills, which come so easily when practiced with their peers, to clinical situations involving the elderly or persons from a different cultural background. Students also lack confidence in their ability to construct knowledge from the mounds of information dispatched in lecture-laden classrooms and to apply that knowledge to clinical judgments.

Critical thinking in nursing must be developed through practice and then evaluated contextually, against specific criteria appropriate to each level, and by multiple measures, such as observation and personalized feedback on student reasoning. Yet the use of videotaped simulations to help students refine hands-on skills and communication techniques is not widespread; and the use of virtual reality in psychomotor skills training is still in its infancy [Westberg and Jason, 1994]. In light of the inability of nursing schools to standardize learning experiences for all students using actual patients and the limited opportunities for students to practice on-the-spot judgments and decisions affecting client care, it is not surprising that many students approach graduation with trepidation over their ability to make correct judgments, communicate effectively, and perform basic nursing skills. Yet these competencies, particularly the ones related to critical thinking, are vital aspects of the care of persons, groups, and communities. Professional nurses must be able to analyze and evaluate information for its validity and relevance; draw inferences, find alternatives, and formulate hypotheses; explicate, justify, and portray information orally, in writing, and pictorially; and possess insight into their own thinking and reasoning ability and self-correct as necessary [Dexter, Applegate, Backer, Claytor, Keffer, Norton, and Ross, 1997].

In the United States, the movement toward managed care has required nursing programs to examine how faculty might prepare students differently. Even more than ever, students must communicate with a variety of health care professionals in community settings. Graduates find themselves needing skills in group dynamics. The Pew Health Professions Commission [O'Neil, 1993] recommends that schools of nursing "redirect ... to the health care needs of community-based patients" (p. 88) and "develop interdisciplinary teaching, practice, and research programs for the maintenance care of chronic patient populations" (p. 88).

Successful collaboration involves effective listening; accommodating others; sharing of ideas; risk-taking; resolving disagreements and reaching consensus; giving, seeking, and receiving help; generating alternatives when no one right answer or course of action exists; and being accountable both to the group and to the goal. These activities rarely characterize typical classrooms, for most classrooms use an individualistic task structure as opposed to a group task structure [Blumenfeld, Marx, Soloway, and Krajcik, 1996].

To address these issues, a group of nursing faculty developed an experiential learning activity in which students used case studies and community volunteer "clients" to practice interviewing, physical assessment, identification of nursing problems, client education, and -- in a simulation format -- clinical skills, such as catheterization, intravenous punctures, and injections. This paper describes a group activity held in our Clinical Skills Laboratory for the purpose of enabling senior level students to gain proficiency at selected skills, integrate nursing theory with practice, and thereby enhance their confidence in their ability to succeed in practice.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The activity on which this paper is based is drawn from social learning theory [Bandura, 1971]. From the social learning perspective, psychological functioning can be viewed as a continuous reciprocal interchange between one's behavior and controlling conditions. Vicarious, symbolic, and self-regulatory processes exert important influences upon behavior. For example, learning occurs in various ways -- through observation of phenomena and their sequelae for other persons; through direct experience involving rewards and punitive consequences for oneself, and through behavior modeling enacted by other persons. Most displayed behavior is learned, either intentionally or unintentionally, through the influence of example. Retention is achieved primarily through the use of symbolic imagery, rehearsal, and verbal symbols, or coding, which serves to guide future behavior. Rating or evaluating of one's behavior often is accomplished by noting how it is received by other persons or how it compares to some existing standard. Alternate courses of action are examined symbolically and pursued or abandoned on the basis of anticipated consequences.

Because social groups contain members with greatly differing abilities and predilections, persons must choose the modeled standards against which to evaluate their own behavior and efforts. Self-satisfaction and a perception of "can do" will be determined chiefly by the models and/or standards with which comparisons are made. As a result, self-evaluation and self-reinforcing activities assume a prominent role in Bandura's social learning theory, from which his self-efficacy theory is derived. One's sense of self-efficacy induces action toward or away from a particular course and exerts a powerful motivating force. To a large degree, human behavior is determined by anticipated consequences of prospective actions. This principle underlies the recognition of social learning as a reciprocal process mediated by one's beliefs about capability for achieving desired outcomes.

SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY AND NURSING EDUCATION

Nursing education offers an excellent example of social learning. From the day that students enter a program they are assigned to groups for the clinical courses, although the group composition varies from course to course. Typically a clinical group will be comprised of eight to ten students assigned to one faculty member in a patient care setting. Students are encouraged to mentally rehearse and to practice applying their knowledge and skills. They have many opportunities to compare their own performance with that of their student peers and to measure themselves against proficiency standards so aptly demonstrated by the experienced nursing staff they meet. Clinical judgments and decisions affecting patient care generally are made in conjunction with the nursing staff or the faculty. Sometimes students express doubt about the adequacy of their knowledge base, problem-solving ability, or competency at nursing skills because they recognize the serious harm that can befall a patient if a wrong decision is made or a procedure is performed improperly. It is not uncommon to observe a student holding back and avoiding complicated task assignments, especially following the commission of an error, even if the error is a relatively minor one such as forgetting to document the oral fluid intake by an ambulatory patient.

THE CASE STUDY ACTIVITY

The case study initiative began as a pilot activity with one clinical group of senior level students in the fall of 1996 at East Carolina University's Bachelor of Science in Nursing program in eastern North Carolina. Two main factors provided the impetus for the pilot. A number of students were reporting considerable anxiety over their readiness to enter professional nursing practice the next summer, despite a carefully planned curriculum which provides many opportunities to learn and to demonstrate knowledge and skills. In addition, some faculty occasionally have schedule conflicts with their clinical teaching commitments when they need to attend continuing professional development programs. When a faculty member is out of town an alternate learning activity sometimes can be arranged with the help of the Clinical Skills Laboratory coordinator, who also is a clinical faculty member.

A semi-structured experiential learning situation was designed to provide an opportunity for students to enhance their competence and thereby bolster their self-confidence. They were eager to apply their knowledge and skills to meet adult health nursing course objectives in a reduced-risk environment. The objectives for the course included:

1. Apply the nursing process in the care of clients adapting to complex alterations in functional health patterns.
2. Apply theories and research in caring for clients experiencing complex health stressors.
3. Collaborate with client, family, and others to develop the plan of nursing care.
4. Demonstrate valid clinical judgments when caring for clients experiencing complex health stressors.
5. Demonstrate the professional nurse's role in applying the nursing process with clients experiencing complex health stressors.

The use of cases was patterned after the case- or problem-based learning (PBL) method currently used at many medical schools. From the PBL perspective, knowledge is acquired in the context of some meaningful situation or significant problem [Laing and Howell, 1994]. Although case studies were organized according to the medical model which culminates in the diagnosis and treatment of disease, faculty had the students deploy a nursing model which focuses upon identifying and addressing nursing problems--how the client copes with that disease or condition. Case studies were synthesized from nursing texts, the school's collection of computer-assisted instruction modules, and recent clinical experiences on acute medical and surgical units.

FROM PAPER TO PEOPLE

Rather than having the students work only from a paper handout or a computer screen, an innovative approach was utilized, to recruit community volunteer "clients" to enact the cases as realistically as possible.

This approach is similar to the method used by some medical schools which employ standardized patients (specially trained healthy lay persons) to give students simulated experiences [Vu, Barrows, Marcy, Verhulst, Colliver, and Travis, 1992]. As the activity was piloted in the adult health nursing department (rather than maternal/child or community/mental health), an assortment of case studies highlighted problems commonly encountered in adult health nursing, such as diabetes, congestive heart failure, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, trauma to the abdomen requiring surgical intervention, chest trauma, post-craniotomy following head trauma, and acute pancreatitis. Each case addressed the following: past medical history; family and social history; physical assessment data; signs and symptoms; medications; diagnostic studies such as glucose tolerance test and CAT scans; current treatment plan; and functional status relative to activities of daily living. The case studies were prepared for distribution as handouts to the students who were expected to elicit any necessary supplemental subjective and objective data from the "client" through proper interviewing and assessment skills. The "clients" received handouts describing their "problem", such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, along with guidelines on how to play their role.

Timetable of Activities

We determined that the students, who all knew one another, would work with the "clients" in self-selected pairs (or trios in the event of an odd number of students). The Clinical Skills Laboratory coordinator successfully recruited eager volunteers from her church congregation to act as "clients". She learned that some persons' health status closely paralleled one of the case studies, so they were asked to enact it. Over the span of three iterations of the activity, one woman actually had diabetes mellitus; an elderly man had chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, and another gentleman had in fact undergone a craniotomy. These persons were given printed guidelines and asked to combine their assigned case study profile with their own personal data to the extent they were comfortable disclosing it.

Given the number of students in the clinical group, the coordinator prepared the proper number of bed cubicles (the Lab capacity is ten) to provide one cubicle for each pair of students and their "client". The Lab was arranged in advance with appropriate supplies and equipment. Volunteers were encouraged to dress casually for the experience and were told when to arrive at the Lab. The coordinator sent a letter to each volunteer confirming these details.

The students were instructed to dress in nice casual clothes and to bring their laboratory coats, namepins, textbooks, and writing materials. They were told in advance that community volunteers would be playing their "clients". The Clinical Skills Laboratory was reserved for the exclusive use of this activity. The timetable unfolds as follows:

0830 Students arrive in Laboratory and are asked to take partners. Groups each select one of the case studies and after reading the assignment determine the division of tasks (interviewing, physical assessment, client teaching, reporting, etc.).

0850 Students add to their existing knowledge as necessary by using any combination of texts, videotapes on various procedures and hands-on skills, selected CD-ROM programs and Internet sites on pharmacology, as well as dialogue with their partners. The Learning Resource Center down the hall is staffed and houses the audiovisuals and computer-based resources.

1000 Volunteer "clients" arrive. They are welcomed to the school, introduced to the students, and shown to their bed cubicle area. Beginning with the interview, the students carry out their planned interventions with their "client". A physical assessment is performed, focusing particularly on areas relevant to the case study. For example, students perform a detailed cardiopulmonary assessment but do not necessarily delve into as much detail on the gastrointestinal system. Ongoing dialogue with the "client" provides additional information and a means of practicing therapeutic communication skills. Upon identification of nursing problems (such as non-compliance with prescribed medication or diet regimen) the students offer client education and/or collaborative problem solving in order to direct the "client" toward more health-protective behaviors. During this period the coordinator (and faculty if present) move among the cubicles, listening and observing but generally not interfering.

1245 Students complete their nursing interventions and prepare a brief written report for the group.
1300 Students, Clinical Skills Laboratory coordinator, (faculty if present) and volunteers share a potluck meal or catered box lunch and chat informally. Volunteers are thanked and released.
1400 Group engages in a facilitated discussion which includes: reporting of cases; linkages among pharmacology, pathophysiology, and nursing actions; difficulties encountered in working with "clients"; experiences with client teaching, and any other relevant issues.
1500 Students complete an evaluation form.
1515 The Lab is open for another hour to students seeking additional skills practice.

Sample Case -- Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease

Presenting History	Symptoms:
Frequent fatigue following light exertion	Dyspnea
Frequent respiratory infections	Pursed-lip breathing/wheezing
Use of accessory muscles to breathe	Chronic non-productive cough
Orthopnea (requires 2 pillows to sleep)	Barrel chest symmetry
Thin, emaciated appearance	Prolonged expiratory phase
Cor pulmonale (late development)	Clubbing in fingers

Mr. S.H. is a 74-year-old Caucasian male admitted 4 Nov. 1996. He is diagnosed with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) and urinary tract infection. He is scheduled for an orthopedic consult. He was just recently admitted two weeks ago, prior to this admission, for a fracture of the right pelvis due to a fall at home; however, he refused referral to Rehabilitation Services. Past medical history includes COPD, coronary artery disease, congestive heart failure, hypertension, gout, and hyperthyroidism.

Mr. S.H. has been a smoker for several years and continues to smoke and to dip snuff. He continues to refuse Rehabilitation Services although his physician strongly urges it. He states repeatedly throughout the day, "One of my attacks (dyspneic spells) is going to kill me." Whenever any of the staff ask him to do anything he exclaims, "I want to go home!"

Respiratory-- short of breath upon minimal activity. Respirations shallow, labored.

Musculoskeletal-- limited range of motion in right hip. Generalized weakness.

Genitourinary-- currently being treated for urinary tract infection.

Skin-- Intravenous infusion site on right wrist, normal; 2 large bruises and raised areas on abdomen at sites of heparin injections administered during previous admission.

Psychosocial-- anxious throughout the day. Depressed, complains of loneliness and boredom. Very dependent upon staff.

Functional status-- can feed self if staff assist with setup. Needs help with bathing and dressing and with use of bedside commode. Unable to complete scheduled occupational therapy and physical therapy visits today due to anxiety and dyspnea.

Current treatment-- pulse oximeter; oxygen at 2 liters/minute per nasal cannula; fingerstick blood sugars twice daily; intravenous infusion 0.5% Normal Saline at 75 cc/hr; low salt diet. On protocol for deep vein thrombosis prophylaxis; 11 medications are prescribed.

To the Student: What additional information do you require? How will you plan this patient's care? Set realistic goals and priorities; include patient education and discharge planning as appropriate. Identify and perform relevant nursing care procedures using the available Clinical Skills Laboratory equipment and supplies.

Follow-Up Activities

The volunteers receive thank-you letters from the faculty member and Clinical Skills Laboratory coordinator. The coordinator debriefs the faculty member if she or he was absent for the activity. On the following clinical day, the faculty member provides students with an opportunity to discuss their reactions to the activity. Sometimes this delayed processing yields new insights into the value of the "client" case study experience.

EVALUATION

We have conducted case studies with community "clients" three times-- twice during the students' penultimate semester and once during their final semester. In each instance the students were asked to complete an evaluation form which focused mainly upon practical aspects of the activity -- the pacing and sequencing of activities, overall length of the day, use of "clients", and so on. Written comments were solicited as well. When the activity was conducted the third time, during fall 1997, the evaluation tool added an item on each course objective and asked students to rate the activity for its usefulness in helping them achieve the objective.

STUDENTS

We found that students who participated in the "client" case studies during their next to last semester seemed to find it more useful than students who participated during their final semester of school. The findings indicate that most students find the case study activity to be a "good" to "excellent" means of meeting the course objectives. Students were able to (1) apply the nursing process, (2) integrate research, theory, and nursing care, (3) collaborate with peers, and (4) practice making clinical judgments for a client experiencing complex health stressors. Concerning the fifth course objective, "depict the professional nurse's role", students were more cautious, with only half of the students finding the "client" case study activity helpful in practicing professionalism.

Written comments were very similar across the three iterations and revealed candid reactions of students to the "client" case studies. The comments clustered around four main themes, which are presented below and accompanied by sample statements from the students.

1. The method of learning was effective.
    "Great alternative learning"
    "Useful in having time to collaborate and plan care"
    "Teaching aspects and opportunity to increase communication skills were good"
    "I was able to absorb more this way"
    "Very helpful; would like to have a day like this every semester"
2. Learning retention increased.
    "I felt I learned a lot about my case. I know pancreatitis very well after this learning experience"
3. The environment was conducive to learning.
    "Relaxed atmosphere bolstered my ego and confidence"
    "I enjoyed the human aspect; I felt that we had holistic nursing care today"
    "Wonderful; feel more comfortable with IVs, NGs, trach care"
4. The experience was enjoyable.
    "Fun day"
    "Met wonderfully interesting people ... missionaries and people with neat life experiences"

While most of the feedback was positive, some comments were less than enthusiastic, as the following examples show. Such statements enabled the faculty to focus on aspects in need of refinement.

> "I'd rather use client's own medical history rather than having them try to simulate. My client just wasn't into it"
>
> "This experience would have been more helpful earlier in the school year to gain insight in strengths and weaknesses and how to improve" (from a student in her final semester)

COORDINATOR

The Clinical Skills Laboratory coordinator plays a pivotal role in setting up the experience and is on hand during the entire activity. Her informal feedback and observations of the students' performance are useful in making modifications to the program and informing students of their strong points and areas where development might be warranted. Anecdotal notes made by the coordinator during case studies and shared with the faculty clustered around these themes:

1. Construction of meaningful knowledge from information.
   "Found information on Internet"
   "Reviewed pathophysiology of congestive heart failure; shared stress coping techniques"
2. Presentation skills.
   "Made excellent closing presentation to group"
   "Excellent patient teaching; adapted teaching to 'real' client (who actually was diabetic)"
   "Reviewed nasogastric tube insertion; discussed pathophysiology of gastric injury"
   "Identified appropriate nursing diagnoses; demonstrated knowledge of emphysema pathophysiology to group"
   "Aware of medication side effects; demonstrated good client teaching"
   "Excellent adaptation to improvising for the situation"
   "Presented nursing implications of head injured-patients"
3. Psychomotor skill refinement.
   "Demonstrated correct stump-wrapping technique"
   "Thorough assessment including neurological checks"
   "Correctly applied head dressing"

FACULTY

For the clinical faculty member, evaluation has focused primarily upon students' reports that they can "tie it all together better now", and their dawning awareness of lifespan health issues and chronicity of disease. Perhaps for the first time, some of them spend several hours in the company of someone whose background is very different from their own, in an environment which is less threatening to students and clients than an acute care setting (hospital). The fact that these "clients" are actually fairly healthy and feeling well during this event surely enhances the quality of interaction with the students. It is very difficult for clients to put forth their best face when they are not feeling well physically, mentally or spiritually, as is so often the case in the hospital setting.

ADVANTAGES AND BENEFITS

The advantages and benefits of a community "client" case study approach to learning are numerous, despite the time and effort required to offer it. The preparation of current, realistic case studies is not too difficult given the abundant source material available through working with actual clients in the school's affiliating health care agencies. Names and details can be changed to protect confidentiality. This section explores several areas worth exploring when considering the use of this approach.

TECHNOLOGY AS PATHWAY TO KNOWLEDGE

Computing technology helps students in identifying their information needs and in retrieving, organizing, and exchanging the information that will be used to construct personally meaningful, relevant knowledge for application to the issues at hand. Students need to be computer literate in order to succeed and in professional practice. The nineteenth century Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky observed that "language leads thought". Working with words can foster synthesis of new ideas and enlarge vocabulary [Stark, 1997], which is particularly valuable in an era marked by lessened reading of books and increased use of auditory media. The use of the Internet and other technological resources during this activity helps students to prepare client education materials, summaries and reports to be shared with peers and faculty, as well as databases in the event that a longitudinal study is developed.

INTENTIONAL LEARNING

The use of case studies promotes intentional learning, which involves questioning, organizing, connecting, reflecting, and adapting [Stark, 1997]. According to Stark, students are motivated through their active engagement with content, peers, faculty, and the "client". Typically, students are most interested in learning when tackling a real problem or issue; and most (but not all) students enjoy learning as a social activity. The opportunity during case studies for students to reflect upon their thinking, reasoning, and linguistic processes affords them a means of developing and improving the retention of their own answers. Comparison of self with others not only facilitates development of collaborative skills but also plays a role in each student attaining more than if the effort were independent. This potential for greater achievement through group effort was referred to by Vygotsky (1978) as the zone of proximal development. It meshes well with social learning theory, which, as noted earlier, is a reciprocal process which is believed to strengthen task-specific self-efficacy. Examining their own beliefs, receiving affirmation, and (sometimes) encountering confrontation about them can enhance students' self-efficacy as well as their critical thinking competency.

DEVELOPING PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCE

The case study approach, in simplistic terms, provides students with an opportunity for further social development. It also allows them to prepare for future workplace realities through practicing interviewing, physical assessment, and selected hands-on skills. On a higher level, it emphasizes the relevance of fundamental concepts by having students use what they already know, deepen or extend their knowledge, and apply it to a situation. It requires them to practice problem-solving. Professional competence requires knowledge of a group of facts and concepts, the ability to exercise judgment in solving problems, and the ability to relate to others as a professional [Michaelsen and Obenshain, 1983]. Perhaps the most valuable aspect of this approach is the opportunity in a reduced-risk environment for students to practice and receive feedback on their efforts, which can help them to improve their performance.

CAMPUS-COMMUNITY CONNECTIONS

Another advantage and benefit is that community "client" case studies offer students a look at health problems in the context of the client's total life. They provide exposure to myriad cultural and multidisciplinary issues and can help students gain a sense of connection with their community. Students are likely to witness the effects of economic hardship, environmental hazards, and chronic conditions on a client's ability to be a self-sustaining, contributing member of a family, group, and social system. The insights gained through this experience can help students understand and apply principles of community-responsive health care, primary prevention, and health promotion.

RECOMMENDATIONS

While this activity has operated smoothly on three occasions, faculty have identified a number of issues which can be considered for future iterations of community "client" case studies. The chief issue to consider might be the placement of the activity in the curriculum. While senior level students benefitted from the activity, their interests and learning needs are quite different from those of sophomore or junior level students. Less experienced students will benefit in very different and important ways from senior students. A needs assessment which include student impressions of their goals learning needs probably might be useful. The cognitive, social, and cultural dimensions of this activity should be carefully explored and understood by faculty before planning an event for less experienced students. In all cases, clients should be informed about the student's level of ability and be cautioned against viewing a student as a professional nurse.

The community "client" case study approach offers important opportunities for students to increase their appreciation of multicultural and lifespan issues related to health care. Future events might draw on populations other than a church congregation, such as persons referred through a local department of social services, civic clubs, or other groups. Arrangements might be developed by which selected clients participate repeatedly in the activity. At some point the students might conduct the activity in a residential home or other facility and bring the school's laptop computers along to record information or develop materials. Case studies might include an emphasis on wellness as opposed to sub-acute care or chronicity. The faculty should explore issues of liability, insurance, and signed waivers of responsibility before undertaking such community service on an uncompensated, not-fully-supervised, pre-professional basis.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE FACULTY

When the activity is conducted with senior level students, it might be reasonable for faculty assume the role of mentor or colleague, once the event gets underway. Students should be given opportunities to make choices and decisions. Such a posture is appropriate to higher stages of a curriculum once students have attained basic knowledge necessary to safe practice [Stark, 1997]. It is important for faculty to have an accurate picture of students' preparation and skills for collaborative learning tasks, for if they lack group process skills, these should be covered through didactic and experiential activities in much the same manner as if they were academic skills such as studying [Johnson and Johnson, 1991].

If offered at lower levels, the case study structure should be modified to provide greater guidance, modeling, and supervision by faculty. Students often need assistance in finding and integrating the linkages among bodies of knowledge, such as sociology, nutrition, pharmacology, teaching/learning principles, and nursing content [Johnson and Johnson, 1991].

FEEDBACK TO STUDENTS

Returning to the theoretical framework for this activity, social learning theory, it is helpful to recall the important role of reciprocal, repetitive processes. For learning to be fully effective, feedback must occur. Students cannot learn or improve their performance without feedback. What is feedback? Feedback is a way of informing a learner of what he or she did and did not do. It is value-free and withholds blame and praise. Feedback is necessary to allow students to cope with their own behavior and to self-adjust [Wiggins, 1997]. In a case study situation students must be provided with feedback on as many aspects of their performance as possible. Students can be guided in providing feedback to their peers; however, faculty feedback certainly has additional value, even if the activity does not result in a grade for the student.

CONCLUSIONS

Student-centered education requires that nursing faculty recognize the traits, abilities, and attitudes which render graduates capable and desirous of contributing to their profession and to society. To so recognize is to be fully accountable to a broad constituency which includes the students, the school's alumni and administration, and, most importantly, the public which places its faith and trust in the hands of health care professionals. Such a quality-based orientation might include the abilities of "communication, analysis, problem-solving, valuing in decision-making, social interaction, taking responsibility for the environment, involvement in the contemporary world, and aesthetic response" [Mentkowski and Doherty, 1984]. These traits, abilities, and attitudes are attaining greater visibility as the new millennium approaches and renewed attention is focused upon finite and precious resources. The community "client" case study approach to nursing education described in this paper constitutes just one way in which educators can guide students toward attaining personal growth and fulfillment as well as a degree of commitment and professionalism which will serve society to full advantage.

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IF YOUR "CASE METHOD" DOES NOT MEET THESE FOUR CRITERIA, CONSIDER UPGRADING TO THE "SCAN" METHOD

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Abstract

If you want your students to use a case method that they can learn quickly and apply productively in many situations and you want this case method to encourage creativity and to lead to worth-while recommendations, you should consider upgrading to the SCAN (Strategic Creative Analysis) method, presented below, with five diagrams.

WHO SHOULD BE INTERESTED IN THIS PAPER?

You should be interested in this paper if the following conditions are true:

1. You want your students to use a generally-applicable method of analyzing cases that they will be able to apply in many situations in class and in the real world.
2. You want your students to learn this method quickly and to apply it correctly.
3. You want this method to be goal-oriented so that it leads to useful results.
4. You want this case method to encourage creativity in that it helps students to develop many alternatives to choose from. However, all of these alternatives must be consistent with situation described in the case.

If you agree with these four "wants," and if your current case method does not entirely satisfy you, you need an upgrade. Read this paper and use the method described here.

If you still have some doubts, here are some facts that may persuade you:

A. This method, Strategic Creative Analysis (SCAN) was developed over many years with the help of thousands of students and business managers and professionals. It has also been presented to executives and has resulted in calls for repeat business.
B. Students learn it quickly.
C. Students have used the SCAN method with cases, real business situations, personal career development and in preparing for influencing and negotiating encounters.

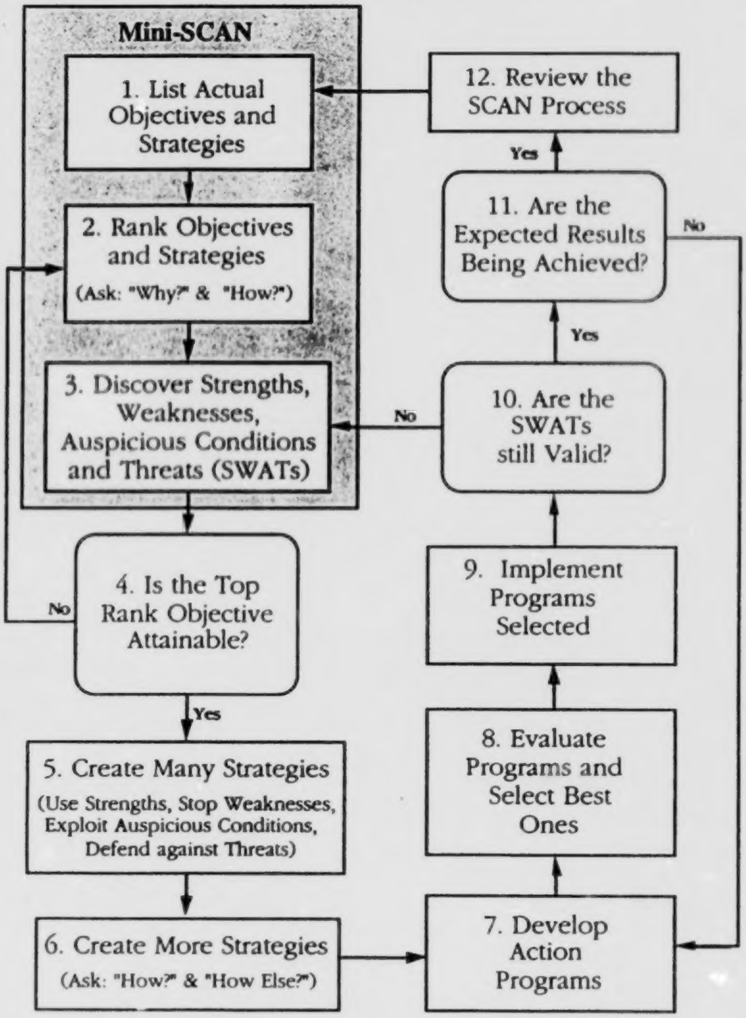
See Exhibit 1 for a flow diagram of the Strategic Creative Analysis (SCAN) Process. The discussion that follows is keyed to the exhibit.

STRATEGIC CREATIVE ANALYSIS (SCAN)

LIST ACTUAL OBJECTIVES AND STRATEGIES

We start the SCAN process by discovering what the organization is trying to accomplish. Without this information it is impossible to determine what needs to be changed, if anything. This is better than looking directly for "problems" and/or "opportunities" because whether something is a problem or an opportunity depends on what the company (or individual) is trying to accomplish. It leads to clearer thinking and discussion if we discover and state objectives explicitly, instead of assuming that we know what they are.

Exhibit 1. Strategic Creative Analysis (SCAN)


Mini-SCAN
1. List Actual Objectives and Strategies
2. Rank Objectives and Strategies (Ask: "Why?" & "How?")
3. Discover Strengths, Weaknesses, Auspicious Conditions and Threats (SWATs)
4. Is the Top Rank Objective Attainable?
No
Yes
5. Create Many Strategies (Use Strengths, Stop Weaknesses, Exploit Auspicious Conditions, Defend against Threats)
6. Create More Strategies (Ask: "How?" & "How Else?")
7. Develop Action Programs
8. Evaluate Programs and Select Best Ones
9. Implement Programs Selected
10. Are the SWATs still Valid?
No
Yes
11. Are the Expected Results Being Achieved?
No
Yes
12. Review the SCAN Process

To start the process, we list objectives and strategies as we find them listed in the case. Objectives and strategies are defined as statements that start with the word "To," followed by a verb, describing results to be achieved. Examples of objectives and strategies may be:

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Organization Objectives & Strategies

- To increase sales revenues
- To increase market share.
- To reduce costs.
- To reduce expenses.
- To improve company image.
- To market a new product.

Individual Objectives & Strategies

- To get a raise in pay.
- To get a new job.
- To make a career change.
- To start a new business.
- To get a promotion.
- To get a transfer.

RANK OBJECTIVES AND STRATEGIES. ASK "WHY?" AND "HOW?"

In the second step, objectives and strategies are ranked logically to discover the Top Rank Objective. It is important to perform this step carefully, to avoid having to repeat the analysis because we discover later that we were not pursuing the most important objective.

To discover the Top Rank Objective (TRO) of the organization, we select the objective that appears to be the ultimate goal of all their efforts from the list that we prepared in Step 1. We draw a box and write in the objective we have chosen. Then we ask: "Why are they pursuing this objective?" We look for an answer to this question *only* in the list we prepared for Step 1. If we find an answer to the question, we draw another box above the first box and write in the higher ranking objective. We connect the boxes with a vertical line.

Next, we ask "Why are they pursuing *this* objective?" about the new top objective and repeat the same steps. We keep asking "Why" and drawing boxes and writing the new TRO until we cannot find an answer to the "Why" question. The objective in the top box at this point *is* the Top Rank Objective, or TRO (see Exhibit 2).

We ask: "How (and 'How else?') are they pursuing this objective?" to rank the objectives and strategies remaining on the list. Answers to the "How" questions are shown in lower-level boxes, as shown in Exhibit 2.

The conclusion is that by repeatedly asking "Why are they pursuing this objective?" we get to the Top Rank Objective, and that is exactly what SCAN requires because it would be regrettable to do a lengthy analysis and then find out that we were not pursuing the Top Rank Objective that applied to the given situation. Also note that the ranking process may be represented as an indented outline *or* as a "boxes and lines" diagram (see Exhibit 2).

If we can't fit all the objectives and strategies into *one* logical structure, we develop two or more diagrams or outlines. This happens occasionally, but it is a rare occurrence.

DISCOVER STRENGTHS, WEAKNESSES, AUSPICIOUS CONDITIONS AND THREATS (SWATS)

Next, we discover the key issues of the situation presented in the case by identifying all the factors, inside the company and outside the company that are helpful or harmful to achieving the objective selected in the previous step. We will use the SWATs in two ways:

a) We will evaluate the feasibility of the TRO, based on the balance between Strengths and Auspicious Conditions vs. Weaknesses and Threats.

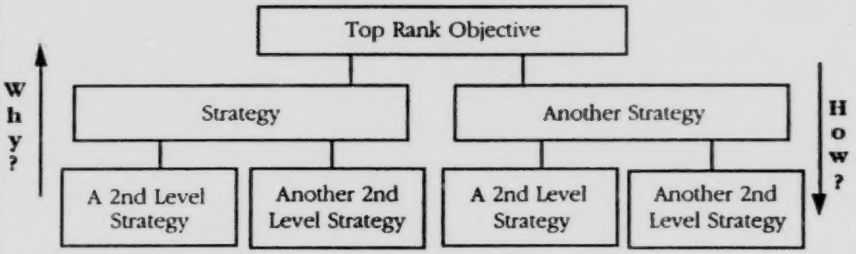
b) We will use the SWATs to generate many possible strategies for attaining the TRO. We select the TRO to start the SWAT discovery, unless there is a reason for working with a lower level objective. We select a lower level objective if the bulk of the case study focuses on that lower ranking objective. See the following list for exact definitions of the SWATs (see also Exhibit 3):

Strengths = attributes of the organization helping to achieve the selected objective.
Weaknesses = attributes of the organization harmful to achieving the selected objective.
Auspicious Conditions = outside conditions helping to achieve the selected objective.
Threats = outside conditions harmful to achieving the selected objective.

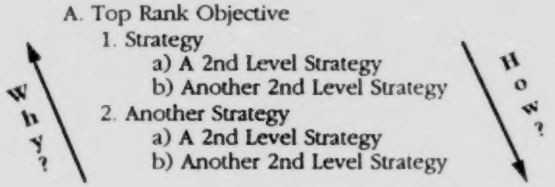
Exhibit 2. List and Rank Objectives and Strategies

a) List all actual, current objectives and strategies of the organization.
b) Select an objective.
c) To find a higher ranking objective, ask "Why do we (they) pursue this objective?"
d) To find a lower ranking strategy, ask "How do we (they) pursue this objective?"

Boxes and Lines:


Top Rank Objective
Strategy
Another Strategy
A 2nd Level Strategy
Another 2nd Level Strategy
A 2nd Level Strategy
Another 2nd Level Strategy
Why?
How?

Outline Form:



A. Top Rank Objective
    1. Strategy
        a) A 2nd Level Strategy
        b) Another 2nd Level Strategy
    2. Another Strategy
        a) A 2nd Level Strategy
        b) Another 2nd Level Strategy

You have found the Top Rank Objective when you can no longer answer the "Why" question with one of the listed objectives.

Note: You may need two (or more) structures.

The term "Auspicious Conditions" is used here instead of the more widely used "Opportunities" to avoid confusion. "Opportunities" is understood by many people to mean "Possible Strategies." The intent here is to discover "Outside conditions helpful to achieving the selected objective."

IS THE SELECTED OBJECTIVE ATTAINABLE?

Up to now, we have selected data from the case, classified the data and arranged the objectives and strategies in a hierarchical fashion. Now it is time to make a decision, whether to pursue the objective we selected or whether to choose another objective.

We ask this question: "In view of the SWATs, can the organization achieve the selected objective?" If the Strengths and Auspicious Conditions are greater than the Weaknesses and Threats, we continue to Step 5. If the Weaknesses and Threats are greater than the Strengths and Auspicious Conditions to make pursuit of the objective unprofitable or too risky, we return to Step 1 and choose another objective and do a new SWAT discovery. If we were working with two or more objectives TRO's, we decide now which objective(s) should be pursued.

Exhibit 3. Discovering Strengths, Weaknesses Auspicious Conditions and Threats (SWATs)

	Helpful	Harmful
	to achieving the Top Rank Objective	
Attributes of the Organization - Controllable	S Strengths __________ __________ __________ __________	W Weaknesses __________ __________ __________ __________
Outside Conditions - Not Controllable	A Auspicious Conditions __________ __________ __________	T Threats __________ __________ __________ __________

CREATE MANY STRATEGIES

This is the first creative step, in which we will use structured brainstorming for generating a large number of possible strategies, all of them aimed at achieving the selected objective. We will create many strategies, so that we have a chance of finding some really good ones. We focus on strategies aimed at achieving the selected objective by deriving strategies from the SWATs, which originated from the selected objective. We ask these four questions, repeatedly: "How can we . . .

- *Use* the Strengths?
- *Stop* the Weaknesses?
- *Exploit* the Auspicious Conditions?
- *Defend* against the Threats?"

We emphasize the *positive* by concentrating on Strengths and Auspicious Conditions. We especially focus on the Strengths that differentiate this organization from competitors. Also, we do not overlook the Weaknesses and Threats that might risk the survival of the organization.

To maximize creativity, we obtain outside information. We consult relevant books, journals, newspapers and other sources. We contact knowledgeable people and seek their advice. We keep track of the sources of outside information as this may be useful in persuading other people to accept our recommendations.

Deriving strategies from SWATs is structured brainstorming. Therefore, we observe brainstorming customs to encourage creativity. "Piggybacking" on other people's ideas is invited. We list diverse strategies even if they conflict with strategies listed earlier. We save criticisms for a later phase of the discussion.

CREATE MORE STRATEGIES, ASK "HOW?" AND "HOW ELSE?"

This is a second way of creating strategies. We start at the top with a box that has the selected objective written in it. We ask: "How?" and "How Else?" can we achieve this objective?" As answers, we show strategies from Step 5 that we judge to be superior. We repeat the "How Else?" question to generate *new* strategies. To qualify, these new strategies must have support from the organization's Strengths and/or Auspicious Conditions. We keep asking "How Else?" to generate more objective-oriented strategies. See Exhibit 4. Time invested in creating many strategies may produce some really good ones.

To understand of what is needed for implementing each strategy, we ask: "How can we implement this strategy?" We carry this activity to many levels. We keep asking "How?" and "How Else?"

An important difference between Step 2 and Step 6 should be noted. In Step 2, we were finding the Top Rank Objective and we were discovering logical relationships among existing objectives and strategies. We were applying an analytical process to available data. In Step 6, we use the previously selected objective and we relate strategies we created in Step 5 to this objective. We also create some totally new strategies by asking "How else?" Furthermore, by asking the "How?" and "How else?" questions with respect to strategies at many levels, we are finding out what is needed for implementing the strategies we have created. The Step 6 diagram (or outline) is richer than the Step 2 product because Step 6 benefits from our analytical and creative work.

DEVELOP ACTION PROGRAMS

Before making final recommendations regarding the case, we should explore the requirements for implementing the more attractive strategies. We do this by developing Action Programs, consisting of the following steps:

1. Name of the strategy.
2. Benefits to the organization of implementing this program.
3. Actions: What will be done?
4. Responsible persons: Who will be in charge of the program?
5. Timing: When will the program start? When will it be completed?
6. Location(s): Where will the program be implemented?
7. Resources: What will be needed: people, money, information, other resources?
8. Control System: How will progress be measured and reported?
9. Rewards for performance, if any.
10. Contingency plans: What will be done if results fall short?

EVALUATE PROGRAMS AND SELECT THE BEST ONES

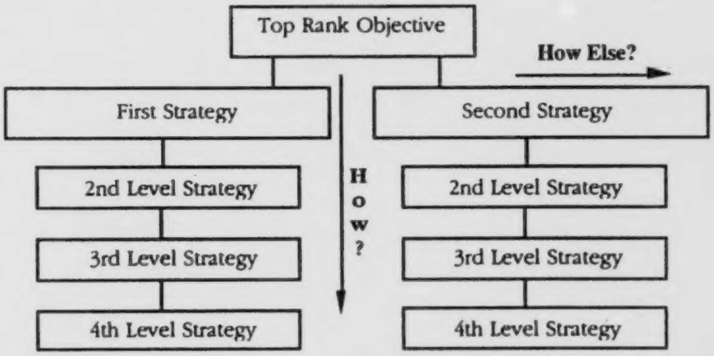
Depending on how attractive the strategies that we developed appeared to be, at this point we may have two, three or more Action Programs. Now, we evaluate them and select the most promising for implementation, by asking the following questions about each one:

a) Are the resources available?
b) What risks effects are involved?
c) Is there a better way of achieving the objective?

Exhibit 4. Creating More Strategies

a) Start with the selected objective.
b) Ask: "How (else) can they (we) achieve this objective?"
c) Ask: "How (else) can they (we) implement this strategy?"
d) Develop the system to many levels (6,7,8, or more).

Boxes and Lines:


Top Rank Objective
How Else?
First Strategy
Second Strategy
How?
2nd Level Strategy
3rd Level Strategy
4th Level Strategy
2nd Level Strategy
3rd Level Strategy
4th Level Strategy

Outline Form:

How Else?

A. Top Rank Objective
    1. First Strategy
        a) 2nd Level Strategy
            (1) 3rd Level Strategy
                (a) 4th Level Strategy
    2. Second Strategy
        a) 2nd Level Strategy
            (1) 3rd Level Strategy
                (a) 4th Level Strategy

How?

d) Do the Action Programs help each other?
e) Should this Action Program be implemented? If yes, when?

MONITORING IMPLEMENTATION

In a real situation, we would monitor implementation in three ways: SWATs, results and SCAN process. We monitor SWATs because attributes of the organization and outside conditions change over time. If SWATs have changed enough, the SCAN process should be repeated to see whether current programs are still the best available.

We monitor results through the organization's control systems: revenues, market share, costs, expenses, etc. Some programs may require additional monitoring systems. We compare actual results to planned results and implement contingency plans, if required.

SCAN should also be monitored. As we use it, we may find ways to improve it.

WRITING CASE ANALYSES (SUGGESTIONS FOR STUDENTS)

Written case analyses cover steps 1 to 8 of the SCAN process. Follow these guidelines:

1. Write your reports in outline format. This saves time for the writer and the reader.
2. Number (or label A, B, C, etc.) the: pages, SWATs, and strategies.
3. Use a clear title for each section to help the reader to follow your thinking.
4. As you list objectives and strategies and SWATs, show in parentheses where you found them (page #, paragraph #).
5. Use only one objective as the focus of each SWAT discovery. Write the title of the SWAT section as follows: "SWATs with Respect to (Selected Objective)."
6. After the SWAT list, state clearly whether the company should pursue its objective, in view of the SWATs. A one line statement will suffice.
7. Create many strategies (twenty or more) from the SWATs. List them briefly with related SWAT numbers in parentheses. Use outside sources to help you generate new strategies and show use of such sources by citing them in the list of strategies.
8. In the Action program part, repeat the ten headings for each program.
9. Develop many, at least three, Action Programs for each case analysis.
10. Use spreadsheets to support your analyses. Use tables and graphics.
11. Computer-print your paper. Hand-written or printed papers will not be read.
12. Appearance counts. Your paper should communicate this clearly, "Read me, first!"

GETTING STARTED WITH SCAN

The instructor should provide a handout describing the SCAN process, possibly with a short case and its written analysis, to help students to learn the process.

The first written assignment should require only a "Mini-SCAN," which consists of Steps 1 to 3 of the SCAN process, of a relatively short case study. The first case discussion conducted by the instructor should cover steps 1 through 8, if time allows.

A large blackboard is very helpful in conducting a class discussion. The instructor starts at the left of the of the board and allocates space for each step of the SCAN process. A good discussion opener is a request for actual objectives and strategies that students found in the case. The instructor may ask for and record page and paragraph references to facilitate discussion in case of a challenge.

When Step 1 is completed, the instructor asks for a nomination for top rank objective from the previously prepared list and records this nomination in a rectangle slightly above the vertical center of the board. This allows entries in response to both "Why?" and "How?" questions. Once the Top Rank Objective has been identified, a decision is made whether to base the analysis on the TRO or another objective, following the criteria specified previously. The SWAT discovery then proceeds with respect to the selected objective.

At Step 4, the class decides whether to continue or to revert to step 2 and to select another objective. The rest of the discussion follows the SCAN process described above.

In grading papers, it is wiser for the instructor to base grades on adherence to process and depth of analysis rather than agreement with the instructor's conclusions. The underlying concept should be that differences of opinion are tolerable and that in the long run the student who does a thorough job of applying the SCAN process will be making better decisions.

After the class has developed familiarity with the SCAN process, it is possible to require full SCAN analyses for one or two cases during a 14 week semester. For an advanced course, it is possible to ask students to write and SCANalyze an original case that they write on the basis of company visits or published sources.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

A summary of the SCAN process is presented in the form of an enhanced flow diagram in Exhibit 5. The following claims can be made:

SCAN is a generally-applicable case method. The SCAN process has been used by the author and students to analyze hundreds of published case studies in the Marketing, Entrepreneurship and Business Policy areas. Students and participants in management development programs have used the SCAN process to analyze at least one thousand original case studies. Students have also used SCAN to analyze personal career situations, in preparing marketing plans, business plans and in preparing to influence and negotiate.

SCAN can be learned quickly. Students who have not had prior case study experience have been able to apply SCAN successfully by the second or third case.

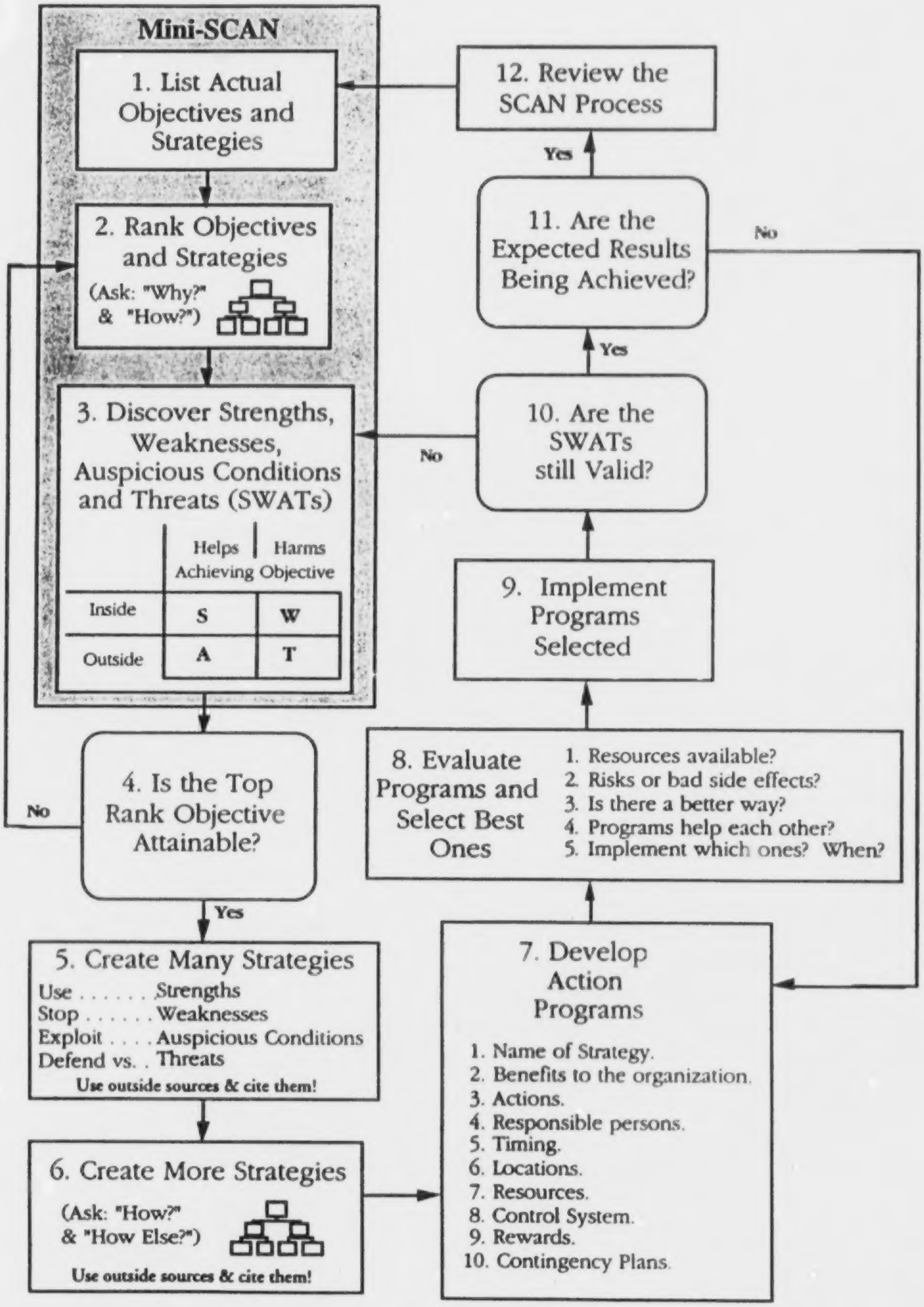
SCAN is goal-oriented. The process starts with discovery of current objectives and strategies and logically derives the Top Rank Objective. SWATs are determined on the basis of the TRO and possible alternatives are derived from the TRO and the SWATs. The entire analysis is based on goals.

SCAN encourages creativity. Steps 5 and 6 direct users of the process to develop alternatives by asking six key questions, over and over. This process has shown itself to be easily grasped and powerfully effective.

SCAN is highly structured so that class discussions can easily be kept on track without sacrificing thoroughness or creativity. The high amount of structure helps the homework reader to determine quickly whether the student did a thorough job of analyzing the case.

In conclusion, case study instructors who want to obtain the advantages listed at the beginning of the paper and summarized above, should start implementing SCAN in their classrooms.

Exhibit 5. Summary: Enhanced SCAN


Mini-SCAN
1. List Actual Objectives and Strategies
2. Rank Objectives and Strategies
(Ask: "Why?" & "How?")
3. Discover Strengths, Weaknesses, Auspicious Conditions and Threats (SWATs)
Helps
Harms
Achieving Objective
Inside
Outside
S
W
A
T
4. Is the Top Rank Objective Attainable?
No
Yes
5. Create Many Strategies
Use . . . . . . Strengths
Stop . . . . . . Weaknesses
Exploit . . . . Auspicious Conditions
Defend vs. . Threats
Use outside sources & cite them!
6. Create More Strategies
(Ask: "How?" & "How Else?")
Use outside sources & cite them!
7. Develop Action Programs
1. Name of Strategy.
2. Benefits to the organization.
3. Actions.
4. Responsible persons.
5. Timing.
6. Locations.
7. Resources.
8. Control System.
9. Rewards.
10. Contingency Plans.
8. Evaluate Programs and Select Best Ones
1. Resources available?
2. Risks or bad side effects?
3. Is there a better way?
4. Programs help each other?
5. Implement which ones? When?
9. Implement Programs Selected
10. Are the SWATs still Valid?
No
Yes
11. Are the Expected Results Being Achieved?
No
Yes
12. Review the SCAN Process

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

INTO, THROUGH, AND BEYOND THE STORY OF JULIO: AN INTERACTIVE STRATEGIC APPROACH TO THE CASE READING/ INTERPRETATION EXPERIENCE

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Abstract

This paper presents a multi-faceted instructional design for teaching the case of Julio, a Hispanic student with learning disabilities and at-risk for school failure. Acknowledging the limited experiences most of the writer's students in a mid-western university have with language minority issues, the presentation and analysis of the case is based on initially intense and gradually declining instructional interaction between teacher and student. Interactive teaching strategies include: activating and providing background knowledge; presenting a conceptual framework of effective instruction for culturally and linguistically diverse students; structuring the reading of the case; facilitating small and large discussion groups; analyzing interplay between the conceptual framework, case of Julio, collaborative practices and the movie Stand and Deliver, and, soliciting and receiving individualized responses to the case.

INTRODUCTION

Research alerts us to the disproportionate rate of academic failure of low-income Hispanic students in U.S. schools [De la Rosa & Maw, 1990]. By fourth or fifth grade, according to [Ogbu and Matute-Bianchi, 1986], many Hispanic students are already "psychological drop-outs." Withdrawing "mentally from school, many fail to complete their work, seem bored, inattentive, and/or exhibit behavior problems" [p. 115]. Many of these students are being taught by inexperienced teachers - most often European-American, young, monolingual, and female [Grant, 1989].

Julio, a triple-threat student [Chan and Rueda, 1979] (learning disabilities, language minority, and at-risk for school failure) closely fits the above profile. Having extensively observed and interviewed Julio in his fifth and sixth grade school years in an urban Southwestern school district, I teach the case of Julio's school experience to pre-service and in-service general and special educators at a mid-western university. For many of these university-level future educators who have very limited experience with culturally and linguistically diverse student populations, this case is a "real eye-opener." This is precisely why the case study is chosen - to strengthen pre-service and in-service educators' understanding of the realities culturally and linguistically diverse students with learning problems (and their teachers) face in the public school setting. Case studies and qualitative research focused on students with labels like Julio have contributed considerably to our understanding of the student perspective on school experience [Rueda and Mehan, 1986; Delgado-Gaitan, 1988; Kos, 1991; Artiles, Trent, & Kuan, 1997].

Following the instructional stance of teachers working in literature-based classrooms such as Julio's fifth grade class, the instruction of the case leads the students "into" (pre-reading activities), "through" (during reading), and "beyond" (post reading activities) the story of Julio's school experiences in fifth and sixth grade. The case of Julio is in the format of a professional paper presented at the American Anthropological Association [Campbell, 1993]. Campbell looks at Julio from three perspectives (labels) - learning disabilities, language minority, and at-risk for school failure. The findings presented in the paper were delineated from extensive observations and interviews of Julio during his fifth and sixth grade years as well as his early career fifth grade teacher and sixth grade special day class teachers. The goal of the research was to understand school life for children who struggle academically and met criteria for qualifying for special education services.

INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN

Following the strong premise of scaffolded instruction [Englert et al, 1990; Gersten and Woodward, 1990], the range of activities utilized in the teaching of the case begins with more directed teacher intervention and ends with student independence and ownership in choosing format and content for the case analysis and application. The varied strategies used include:

"Into" the case study (Pre-reading Activities)
- Activating and providing background knowledge
- Introducing a conceptual framework

"Through the case study" (Reading the Case)
- Structuring the reading of the case study
- Facilitating interactive small and large group discussions

"Beyond the case study" (Post Reading Activities)
- Analyzing the interplay between the conceptual framework, the case study, collaborative practices, and the movie, Stand and Deliver.
- Soliciting and receiving individualized responses to the case experience

"INTO" THE CASE OF JULIO

In both undergraduate and graduate sections of special education courses on methods for instructing students with mild disabilities and including special education students with a range of disabilities/special needs in general education classes, timing of the teaching of the Julio case is critical. The case is introduced after students have obtained substantial knowledge/information on: the special education referral and placement process; forms of special education service delivery; characteristics and learning needs of students who have learning disabilities; the issues surrounding the inclusion of students with disabilities within the general education classroom; and challenges teachers face in collaborating to meet students' instructional needs.

It is most important to understand the experiential background of each group of students reading the case. Most come to the classes with limited or no experiences with second language learners. A few tell of somewhat more extended experiences:

> Frankly, my school experience with English as a Second Language students is limited. My teaching experiences have not had ESL students... I had the opportunity to work with some ESL students (as an aide)...I could sense the hesitancy to participate and lack of confidence because of the language issues.
>
> The majority (of experiences) is during my college experience here. I have many friends here at UT that are overseas students and I get from them how it feels to be studying English and the frustrations.

Providing Students with a Conceptual Framework

Prior to the students' reading of the case study, I provide a conceptual framework of effective teaching of language-minority students - The Constructs of Effective Instruction [Gersten and Woodward, 1992]. The constructs were formulated in an attempt to synthesize the emerging research bases of (a) effective instruction, (b) cognitive strategy research, and (c) second-language learning/bilingual education.

The constructs provide a comprehensive framework within which to determine the effectiveness of teachers' instructional practices for at-risk English as second language students. As I interpret the researchers' thinking, the *ideal* expert teacher of limited English proficient students is seen as one who *challenges* students by engaging them in learning activities where success is possible. The teacher actively *mediates* student learning by scaffolding instruction, utilizing cognitive strategies, and providing frequent, comprehensive, and appropriate feedback. Frequent opportunities to work *collaboratively* and *cooperatively* are provided. Planning and delivery of instruction reflects a knowledge of and sensitivity to the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of the students.

To further student understanding and encourage application of the constructs, students read and scrutinize selected field notes of early-career to veteran teachers to identify specific teacher behaviors that fall within the constructs (i.e. challenging students, involving students in learning, using cognitive strategies to enhance critical thinking skills).

"THROUGH" THE CASE OF JULIO

A consistent requirement in all my courses is a reflective/response log. One key feature of the log is the Instructor's Structured Questions. For the Julio case, the questions are in the format of a graphic organizer. The organizer is designed to guide students through the reading of Julio's experiences in 5th and 6th grade. The organizer is designed to lead students to compare and contrast learning experiences and identify key issues.

Julio Case Study

What are Julio's characteristics as a student?"

Learning Disabilities

Language Minority (what were his language abilities)

At-Risk for School Failure

Describe Julio's experiences in fifth grade:

Special education placement

Collaboration at school site

Julio's behavior in regular class as compared to the Sped resource room

What instructional materials/strategies did Julio respond to (+ and -)

What were Julio's experiences in middle school?

Special education placement

Julio's frustrations

Teacher frustrations

My individual reaction to Julio's experiences is:

This is what I will remember most about Julio - a triple threat student:

The message this case study carries for teachers/staff/others working with students like Julio is:

This activity guides students in organizing their ideas and provides a starting point for interactive dialogue. Students bring completed organizers to class. In groups of 4-5, they are directed to discuss the case study based on responses on the organizers for approximately 30-45 minutes. After the small group interactions, the class reconvenes as a large group to delineate key issues and themes of the case study. Each semester conversation extends beyond the basic information on the organizer. For example, students recognize the strong collaboration at Julio's elementary school, but note that little collaboration existed between his teacher and others in the school within his classroom. Parent/school relationships is another key area of discussion.

'BEYOND' THE CASE OF JULIO

When I ask the students to tell me the value of the case of Julio as they write in their reflective/response logs, they cross the line beyond the factual and enter a more interpretive mode of expression. I am amazed at the diversity of the formats of responses and quality of case analysis. All semester prior to the teaching of the Julio case, I ask students to formulate their log writing entries in graphic organizers, lists, pictures to be "creative" in their mode of delivery. It is at this point in the course that I find a real artistry in writing and other responses. Their reactions, in my opinion, show an intensity and ownership. As one graduate special education student wrote:

> The most compelling part of Julio's case to me was the building up, then letting down, of Julio's learning. He had begun to overcome his obstacles and learn to read, becoming a motivated, successful student in spite of those obstacles, when it all came crashing down. That wasn't the ending I wanted to see! It was such a waste of his potential.

One Hispanic undergraduate general education student recognizes the relevance of Julio's case:

> I will remember a lot about Julio, being Hispanic and growing up in the inner-city myself I have known a lot of kids like him. Learning about him will just help me as a teacher to find avenues to do things like make sure to protect his self-image, involve his family as much as possible, and help him to feel comfortable with his program of education. I think the most important message for teachers to be aware of the different cultural expectations and how they fit in a school setting.

Still another succinctly sums up Julio's struggles at the middle school level.

> Middle school did not impress Julio, nor did Julio impress middle school.

Several students took heed to directives encouraging "creativity" and individualized their analysis by responding in a graphic/pictorial mode.

Inter-play of conceptual framework, case, and movie, Stand and Deliver

After reading and initial analysis of Julio's story, students watch the movie, *Stand and Deliver*, based on the real-life experiences of Jaime Escalante, a calculus teacher, in East Los Angeles. The structured instructor questions provide a menu of choices:

Making Connections:
Julio Case Study, Effective Collaboration, Jaime Escalante in *Stand and Deliver*

This afternoon you will watch Stand and Deliver. Before you watch the movie, select one of the following questions:

Julio as a student of Jaime Escalante
After watching Jaime Escalante's style of teaching, how would Julio "fit" into his match class? In this response, you will describe Escalante's style/expectations, etc. and also focus on what you know about Julio's strengths and limitations.

Constructs of Effective Instruction

"Fit" Jaime Escalante's teaching within the Constructs of Effective Instruction. You may address all or some of the Constructs.

Collaboration

Jaime Escalante worked basically alone to accomplish what he did. What were the problems preventing effective collaboration at his school site? What could have been done to alleviate these problems and promote more cohesive collaboration?

Scrutinizing my instruction is a personal priority. Throughout my courses, I encourage constructive feedback on course content, instructional style, etc. in the students' reflective/response logs. Because I have changed my instructional stance after listening to student reactions, the teaching of the Julio case has certainly progressed in the past two years. At first, I began cautiously, not certain how students with limited experiences with students like Julio, would react to a professor fresh from Southern California. Beginning with simply sitting in a circle and reading and responding to the case to the current more elaborate scaffolded approach presented in this paper, the teaching process has moved full circle.

Most importantly, I note increased ownership of case analysis and interpretation. At the conclusion of the undergraduate course focused on including students with special needs into the general education setting, students bring closure to their extensive reflective log writing by composing a personal philosophy/course reaction paper delineating 2-3 key themes reoccurring throughout their writings, thinking, readings in the course. Two such pre-service general educators collaborated to write lyrics to five songs that reflected the major themes that they learned over the duration of the course. One song sung to the tune, Allison, by Elvis Costello words tells the story of a fictional general education teacher who comes to realize that a student in his class, Julio, has a learning disability and begins to address it.

Watching Steve conclude his video presentation with the final lines, Julio, I will help you, I will help you, reinforces, for this instructor, the value of taking the time to design a variety of scaffolded interactive learning activities to guide students through "Julio's" story.

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THE INTERNATIONAL MANAGER: A CASE FOR DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

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Abstract

The development of electronic media has caused communication over the world to improve. Suddenly even developing countries fall under the verandah of the global "village." Rich countries already active globally have extensive experience on international business matters and know how to manage the fierce competitiveness that exists in the global village. The rich countries have realised long ago that the traditional general manager does not have enough "armoury" to survive in the global village. This realization resulted in the emergence of the inter-national manager. Besides the normal managerial capabilities, the international manager must also have an appreciation for business customs, cultures and languages of other international "players" in the global "village."

Developing countries need persons equipped with the skills attributed to the international manager to help solve problems such as poor productivity, insufficient motivation,, low gross domestic products (GDP), high unemployment and low human development indices.

All developing countries also have high population growths, which makes growth in the economy of prime importance for survival.

There is a lot of pressure on the international manager to perform. Training of the international manager must therefore receive special attention. It is expected of him/her to be a creator of wealth; it is already accepted that he/she would have to be a specialist in at least two disciplines (science/technology and financial management preferably); and also needs to have a good general knowledge of the cultures and customs of other nations and human resource management of multinational teams.

THE PERFORMANCES AND NEEDS OF DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Developing countries fared very poorly on the dimensions measured in the world competitiveness indices as compiled by the Institute for Management Development (IMD) in Lausanne, Switzerland. In Table 1 some economic indicators of productivity regarding selected rich countries, eastern "tigers," European "tigers" and developing countries are displayed. From these indicators it is evident that the productivity performances of developing countries compare unfavourably to those of the rich countries and the eastern and European "tigers."

TABLE 1
ECONOMIC PRODUCTIVITY INDICATORS OF SELECTED COUNTRIES

Country	WCI (1) out of 46	HDI (2) ranking (index)	Unemployment (% of labour) ranking	Brain-drain ranking(3)	Entrepre-neurship/ Innovation
Rich					
USA	1	2(0,937)	17 (5,50)	1	6 (7,23)
Denmark	5	16(0,920)	33 (10,10)	13	19 (6,55)
Switzerland	9	13(0,925)	12 (4,20)	8	25 (6,12)
Germany	10	15(0,921)	26 (8,20)	10	33 (5,69)
UK	19	18(0,916)	25 (8,10)	22	29 (5,93)
Eastern Tigers					
Singapore	2	28(0,880)	4 (2,60)	6	22 (6,42)
Hong Kong	3	23(0,905)	11 (3,50)	37	2 (7,94)
Japan	4	2(0,937)	10 (3,00)	2	43 (4,22)
Taiwan	18	NA	1 (1,79)	12	5 (7,51)
European Tigers					
Hungary	39	32(0,856)	36 (11,40)	43	38 (5,52)
Poland	43	33(0,855)	41 (14,90)	33	3 (7,57)
Developing countries					
China	26	44(0,594)	6 (2,90)	40	45 (3,93)
Brazil	37	39(0,804)	14 (4,60)	29	7 (7,14)
RSA	44	41(0,705)	45 (32,60)	45	34 (5,62)
Russia	46	34(0,849)	26 (8,20)	46	46 (3,31)

Resource: World Competitiveness Report, IMD, Lausanne, 1996.

Notes:

(1) WCI = World competitiveness index

(2) HDI = Human development index. Combines political, economical and social factors

(3) Brain drain. Low number indicates little brain drain.

From the facts derived from the World Competitiveness Index it is evident that developing countries are not ready to compete with the other on a global village scale. From Table 1 it appears evident that developing countries cannot compete with the other with regard to, especially, human development, employment, productivity, innovation and entrepreneurship. In Table 2 more productivity indicators are compared.

TABLE 2
PRODUCTIVITY FACTORS OF COMPETITIVENESS FOR SELECTED COUNTRIES (RANKING OUT OF 46)

Country	Domestic economy	Inter-nationaliza-tion	Govern-ment	Finance	Infra struc-ture	Manage-ment	Science Techno-logy
Rich							
USA	1	2	7	1	1	10	1
Denmark	15	11	22	5	8	5	18
Switzerland	20	19	11	6	11	13	4
Germany	19	9	19	8	12	20	3
UK	21	8	16	9	14	23	16

Country	Domestic economy	Inter-nationaliza-tion	Govern-ment	Finance	Infra struc-ture	Manage-ment	Science Techno-logy
European Tigers							
Singapore	3	1	1	3	33	4	12
Hong Kong	8	4	2	7	9	14	20
Japan	5	14	21	2	26	2	2
Taiwan	11	26	6	21	30	18	17
European Tigers							
Hungary	43	30	40	43	24	38	36
Poland	40	42	43	44	45	37	37
Developing countries							
China	2	23	9	37	40	30	28
Brazil	35	46	18	34	38	36	45
RSA	44	39	37	31	32	40	34
Russia	46	45	46	46	46	46	31

Resource: World Competitiveness Report, IMD, Lausanne, 1996

From this table it is fairly evident that, with a few exceptions, the developing countries compare poorly with the other with regard to domestic economy, internationalization, government, finance, infra structure, management as well as science and technology.

People are regarded as a most important productivity factor. Table 3 reflects people productivity factors for selected countries.

TABLE 3
THE PEOPLE PRODUCTIVITY FACTORS FOR SELECTED COUNTRIES (RANKING OUT OF 46)

Rich Countries		
USA - 15	Denmark - 1	Switzerland - 10
Germany - 12	UK - 27	
Eastern Tigers		
Singapore - 8	Hong Kong - 22	Japan - 4
Taiwan - 16		
European Tigers		
Poland - 30	Hungary - 33	
Developing Countries		
China - 35	Brazil - 37	RSA - 46
Russia - 41		

Source: The World Competitiveness Yearbook, IMD, Lausanne, 1996.

From these results it appears that the people factor of developing countries compares poorly with that of the other.

THE EXPECTATIONS OF THE INTERNATIONAL MANAGER IN A DEVELOPING COUNTRY.

From the results provided in Tables 1, 2 and 3 it seems evident that the drive for competitiveness of the developing countries is poor as compared to the other countries mentioned. As such much is expected from the international manager in a developing country. Some of these expectations will now be discussed.

People Management

The labour force, in a typical developing country, is known to be highly demotivated with a very low self-image. Generally they are easily intimidated and influenced by powerful trade unions. The largest proportion of this work force can be classified as unskilled or half-skilled labour. Mostly, persons belonging to this grouping grew up in a culture of "poor quality of life" and it is difficult to change this culture. They tend to have large families and it is therefore usually impossible for them to give their children a good education. High unemployment is rife amongst this cadre and many depend mainly on welfare contributions provided by government.

One of the prime tasks of the international manager will be to give these people proper in-service training (continuous training) to improve their skills and to bolster their self-confidence. The international manager will also have to get involved in community training in order to turn the tendency away from, for example, large families, acceptance of poverty, drug abuse and dependency on government welfare. The international manager will have to strive towards a more motivated work force by means of, inter alia, proper training and incentive schemes.

Internationalization

Developing countries are characterized by poor international trade performances because of products and/or services rendered of a poor quality. Because of this export figures are not satisfactory and they have to import a lot; especially expensive capital goods. In the short run the only way developing countries can survive is through national protectionism, which is not really acceptable in the international trade. Although most developed countries have open economies they do not exhibit a culture of international openness.

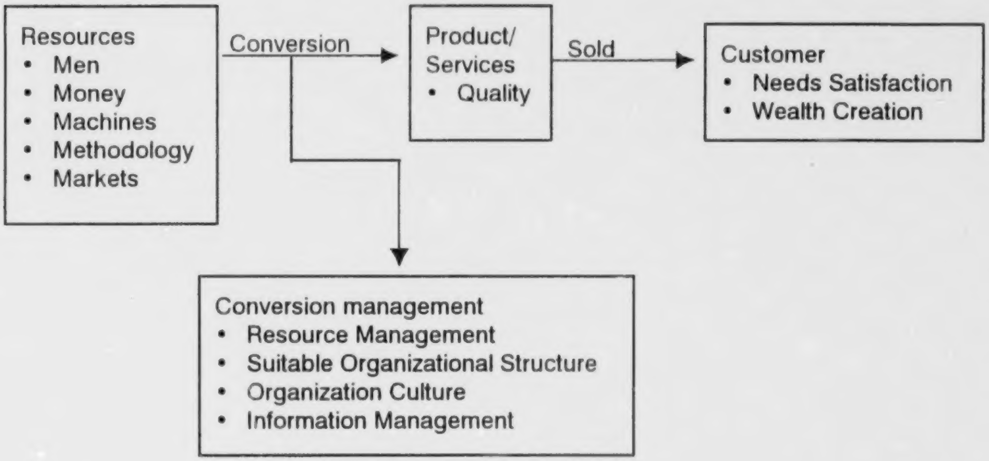
One of the most important tasks of the international manager is therefore to ensure that his organization can compete in the international market. He will have to produce a product or render a service that will have a competitive edge in the global village. A product or service that will satisfy the needs of the international customer and that will create wealth for the organization of the international manager. This product or service will have to be top quality. This means the product should be produced (or the service rendered) faster, better and cheaper than that of competitors. According to the "Simplicity Wins"-concept of the McKinsey & Co, cost, time, and quality are the three most striking dimensions of business performance [Rommel, 1995]. This concept can easily be applied to explain the difficulties and challenges of the developing in comparison to the industrialized countries.

To maintain the competitive edge the international manager will have to be creative, innovative and entrepreneurial; always looking for opportunities to put quality products or services on the international market. A culture of internationalization should be created in the organization. All personnel should be trained in such a way that they feel comfortable in the international scene.

Productivity

Productivity implies to do the right things in the right way. This way you can be efficient and effective. De Beer *et al* (1996) coined the "customers first" productivity model. According to this model the customer is depicted as the most important entity in the productivity model. In the first stage of productivity the resources of the company is converted to products or service. To be efficient the conversion must be optimal, yielding quality products or services. To obtain this the conversion must be managed. A simple model of productivity can be depicted as follows in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1
A SIMPLE MODEL FOR INTERNATIONAL PRODUCTIVITY MANAGEMENT



For the international manager to be productive in the global market his first task is resource management. The management of human resources to enable them to perform in the international market has two dimensions: the dimension of people management and that of customer management. Both are cross related: Customer-Satisfaction as output needs a partnership-dialog and performance orientated leadership concept as input. Internal management qualities are essential for external management success.

Money management or financial management implies, inter alia, the optimum usage of available funds, the relaying of funds from one country to another, an evaluation of the investment prospects in the international markets, the use of proper international currencies and the assessment of interest rates in different countries.

Productive machine management in developing countries can be a nightmare. Because of the weakness of the currencies of developing countries, imported machines (capital goods) tend to be very expensive. The correct choice of machines implying, for instance, the lowest price, the lowest overheads, good accompanying training programmes, ease of operation, available reliable service contracts, is one of the greatest "headaches" the international manager will have to manage in order for his products/services to be competitive in the global village.

Methodology management is of prime importance because methods should be used that will produce quality products/services. Continuous research in improving methodology is very important.

Materials management implies that the international manager should be aware where in the global village quality materials can be acquired at the lowest cost to enable him to convert the materials into products/services at a profit. Sources of materials should be evaluated for amongst others reliability, price and availability. As far as market management is concerned the international manager will have to be a player in the international market. Responsibilities will also include the determination of the demand for the products/services in the international market and whether the products/services are competitive with regard to price and quality. The international manager will have to become an expert in the international market, always investigating new opportunities, new trends, and new movements.

The international manager will have to devise a suitable organizational structure for the organization in which co-workers feel comfortable to compete globally. For example, to compete in the global village decisions should be taken quickly by knowledgeable people and that will favour flat structures. Information must flow freely in an international organization and that is not always possible in a typical bureaucratic hierarchy of the developing countries.

The international manager will have to foster people in a culture that will promote internationalization. Visits to and from other countries should be arranged to allow co-workers to become aware of cultural differences, differences in trade customs and other variations.

There has been an explosion of information. Data is generated at an amazing rate and it will be a major task of the international manager to convert all the available data into useful information. He/she will have to use all the advantages of modern electronic devices to assist in this task.

KEY-QUALITIES OF THE INTERNATIONAL MANAGER

The most important attribute of international managers, conducted through the Ashride survey 1989 - 1990 in international companies is strategic awareness, a competence which combines both "hard" and "soft" qualities [Barham, 1991]. Strategic awareness is the ability to achieve international effectiveness. This ability calls for managers who can physically operate across different national boundaries as well as for individuals who understand the international implications of their work. International managers must be aware of the strategic impacts of the market and management trends in the global economy.

Societies across the world demand technical competence on the part of the manager. That technical competence is typically rooted in the so-called "hard" skills. These skills cover the areas of production, marketing-hard or soft, finance, management of information, legal, accounting, quantitative methods and international business. The terms used are commonly understood so we will limit our discussion to those which may not have a widely accepted meaning [Patten, 1995].

Management of Information

Information has become an asset that is of equal importance to the human resources, capital, machinery and facilities of an organization. Management of information is as important as management of these other items. The information that is needed to manage an enterprise must be accumulated, stored, configured in an appropriate format, and presented in a meaningful manner. The ability to understand the components involved in designing a system of management information and operating it, comprises a management skill which will be critical in the future.

International Business

The items listed previously constitute tools, functions, and technical knowledge needed in doing business. They have application, albeit in different ways, in all countries. The variable between countries is the culture and political system that resides in a country. Dealing with the various governments is a key variable in distinguishing business activities in one country versus those in another. The proficient manager must have a sensitivity and awareness of these differences and be able to adapt to doing things in a manner that may be different from that which is done in the home country. Put another way, there needs to be a tolerance and awareness on the part of the manager that things may be done differently in other countries, and that there is a supporting rationale underlying the practices.

Attitudinal Competence

The attitudinal competence of a manager stems from the questions: "What can/should I do?," "Is what I do of benefit to the company, the staff, society, the environment?." This suggests that attitudinal competence have its origin in a broad sensitivity to ethics and humanity. Attitudinal competence will require respect for the dignity of man and the recognition of giving permanent incentives to find solutions to the simple economic and ecological question: Can we produce more with less? Environmental management suggests why and eco-auditing tells how to put it into practice [Egle, 1991].

Besides the personal qualities described above, inter-cultural competencies are mentioned as one of the most important characteristics required of international managers. This underlines the sensitivity which is needed in order to manage people from other countries and in unfamiliar situations. A crucial characteristic among the various inter-cultural competences is language skills. A utopian view would hold that in the near future international managers would move with ease and assurance from one language to another as they move across national borders. Yet, in reality, there is no easy way to the achievement of competence in another language.

The international manager of the future may well be guided by a compass exhibiting pioneer spirit, specialism, team spirit, and generalism. Pioneer spirit implies thinking of yourself as a business of one, while team spirit implies that he will have to be a team player. As a specialist he should be an expert in at least one field but preferably two fields while as a generalist he should know enough of the different disciplines to be able to mediate among them [Kiechel, 1994]. The manager of the future will also need to be an anchor in that he or she must be a specialist or expert in some area. That expertise, frequently referred to as a major or concentration in colleges or universities, becomes the foundation or point of entry from which a person will build their managerial career. The demands emanating from the complex world of business are such that it may well be that a person needs to be an expert in at least two disciplines in order to survive the future.

Although the need for expertise in something has become evident, there is also a need to become a generalist. A person must know enough about a number of different disciplines to be able to make decisions when inevitable conflict arises among them. For example, a manager must not only know something about marketing, but also about ethical and ecological management human resource management, the management of operations, finance, accounting, and the like. Managers need not know so much that they can match expertise with true experts in all these areas, but they must be knowledgeable enough so they can reach decisions and have an understanding of the basic points being made by the expert specialists.

The compass points relating to the positions of one's self also creates something of a conflict. You must be self-reliant and be able to function without a lot of guidance and supervision. A manager must display the ability to sense a task that needs to be done and then do it. Yet, increasingly, persons are being called upon to function as a member of a team. This includes managers who find that they too must be team players. The analogy of compass points seems to be most apropos. While each point (trait or ability) represents a distinctly different direction, the manager of the future must have a solid position encompassing all of them. To a certain extent this can be trained.

THE TRAINING OF THE INTERNATIONAL MANAGER

To be able to succeed in a competitive global environment the training of the international manager will have to be exceptional. He will have to be an expert in at least two disciplines, preferably a science/technology and financial management. Apart from formal training in both a specialist field and development in the area of general management an additional training, which will allow transcendence of the borders of the home country, will be required for the development of the international manager. The following areas of training may need to receive attention:

Communication Skills

Communicating is the basis of negotiating and an integral part in any business deal. To ensure successful interactions in a global market the international manager should also have mastered the following:

- Fluency in one or more of the international languages (eg. English or French)
- Ability to communicate by means of modern information technology; to receive and relay data, to condense the essential, to manage masses of information
- A working knowledge of the politics and economics of especially the countries in which the deals are taking place and a sensitivity to the prevailing customs in those countries.
- An understanding of international markets and foreign exchange and currency.
- A tolerance for and understanding of different cultures.
- The ability to formulate logically, clearly and economically.

Entrepreneurial Skills

An international manager will be an entrepreneur - a wealth creator and player on the world market. To be able to excel in the global village he/she will:

- Have to be observant of occurrences world-wide and to see the opportunities arising from it

- Be aware of market trends and tendencies on a global scale
- Establish networks internationally
- Make speedy decisions and be willing to take calculated risks
- Be conversant with the export/import industry and its consequences.

People Management

The management of people to operate in an international market is an area which also has to be addressed by the international manager. In developing countries specifically the demands placed on the international manager in this respect will be great. Training and development will have to include skills to enable the manager to:

- Motivate a lethargic worker corps to greater productivity
- Develop people and empower them to expand their vision beyond the local borders
- Foster work pride and a sense of ownership in what they are doing in people
- Progressively expose persons to international influences, cultures and markets
- To encourage creativeness and innovation in persons in the work place

Organizational Development

The creation of a suitable culture in organizations in order to foster internationalization is a task at which the international manager, and especially so in developing countries, should be adept. These would include the following:

- Structures should be flatter to allow quicker decision-making
- Incentives should be given for creativity and innovation.

CONCLUSIONS

The task of the international manager is a daunting one. This is particularly so of the manager in a developing country. International managers need to be developed (especially where a country is intent on changing from wealth absorption to wealth creation) and in this respect specific additional skills and training are required. Yet, apart from set training, continuous informal training will be needed to keep the international manager updated and abreast of the constant changes that happen throughout the world. In order to be able to remain "one step ahead" the international manager will have to be a student for the rest of his/her life.

Taking into account the nature of the task and the enormity of the consequences resulting from the management of the efficient and effective international manager it would be a productive investment to spend time, money and energy on this training and development.

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CHAPTER FOUR

THE EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP PROGRAM AT JOHNSON & WALES UNIVERSITY: A CASE STUDY IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF A DOCTORAL COHORT

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Abstract

This is a case study of the development of a doctoral cohort in educational leadership. The Educational Leadership Program [ELP] is the first doctoral program at Johnson & Wales University. The ELP mission falls within the scope of the University's mission and charter and is designed to exhibit the same core attributes that mark all offerings at this institution: career and professional orientation, student-centered approach, employment focus, innovative program design, experiential learning, and action, rather than theoretical research. The program is carefully designed to reflect the culture and expectations of a doctoral level offering. Its goal is to produce a community of dedicated leaders as change agents in education.

INTRODUCTION

The Educational Leadership Program [ELP] at Johnson & Wales University is designed for experienced educators who are currently working in elementary-secondary or higher education. The program uses a problem-based, action research, and case method approach to the teaching of educational leadership.

Common criticisms of administrative preparation programs include:

- the remoteness of academic programs from the problems of the field
- the passive nature of most instruction
- the failure to present theoretical constructs in ways that are meaningful to students and practicing administrators [Asbaucih and Kasten, 1991].

In addition, graduates of educational administration/leadership programs continue to complain that university programs do not provide the opportunity for applying theoretical knowledge to actual [Norton and Lester, 1998].

This paper addresses the implementation of an alternative strategy for teaching and learning in higher education.

The ELP design is based on current theory and research about learners, learning, and learning contexts. Its conceptual underpinnings draw on [Dewey, 1958] for his insights about theory and practice, on [Resnick, 1987] for her insights about authentic learning and work, on [Vygotsky, 1986] for his insights about social interaction, on [Brown, Collins, and Duguid, 1989] for their work on situated learning and cognitive apprenticeships, on [Bridges, 1994] for his work on problem-based learning, on [Calhoun, 1994] for her work on action research, and on [Knowles, 1980] for his work on adult learning.

Definitions

For the purpose of this paper, the following definitions will be used to guide the reader:

Action research is, according to [Bradford, Gibb, and Benne, 1964], "an application of scientific methodology in the clarification and solution of practical problems. It is also a process of planned personal and social change. In either view, it is a process of learning in which attention is given to the quality of collaboration in planning action and in the evaluation of results." [p.33]

Action research is an instructional strategy that requires students to integrate and use knowledge from various disciplines to select problems for study, to conduct sound research, and to work collaboratively to propose solutions to problems. Action research consists of five phases:

1. Selection of a problem area-students select a problem area of interest and analyze current variables regarding the problem.
2. Collection of data- students collect data from multiple sources, seek technical assistance as needed, and monitor the collection of data.
3. Organization of data- students arrange data to clarify meaning, display data in tables and charts, organize data for team analysis, and seek technical assistance as needed.
4. Interpretation and analysis of data- students analyze and question data, determine priorities for actions, and decide relevancy of data.
5. Take action on the problem- students select options for action, design short- and-long-term action plans, implement action plans, assess impact of action plans.

Problem-based learning employs four key tasks:

1. Learning centers on a problem that students already face, or are likely to face, as professionals.
2. Knowledge that students are expected to acquire is organized around the solving of problems rather than around lectures and traditional disciplines.
3. Students, individually and cooperatively, assume responsibility for their own learning.
4. Most learning occurs in small collaborative groups as opposed to traditional lectures.

Case studies are written descriptions of actual situations that involve the participants in applying personal skills and knowledge in solving practical problems. Examples include critical incidents and scenarios [Norton and Lester, 1998].

Simulations are methods of representing and replicating essential aspects of reality for better understanding and/or control. Examples include in-baskets, role play and computer simulations.

Collaborative or cooperative learning is an instruction strategy that requires students to work in small groups focused on a common project or task. Students work on semester-long team projects and in-class tasks. Students are encouraged to work collaboratively on both a field project and a dissertation.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The philosophical theories of Dewey and Whitehead provided the initial theoretical foundation to the development of Case Method learning. From Dewey, the father of pragmatism [Gaff and Ratcliff, 1996], comes the concept that learning is rooted in experience and that knowledge derives from a process of inquiry, an inquiry that is often best found in the development of problem solving situations. Inherent in this concept is "Active Learning" which involves the learner as questioner and reflective participant. The learner becomes a "doer" and a "problem solver." It is generally agreed that this mode of learning is more effective and enduring when compared to passive learning, where the learner is the passive receiver of established knowledge.

[Dewey, 1916] reconstructed traditional theories of knowledge and replaced them with the theory of inquiry. Experience is only something I experienced," that is, something "undergone," but there is no active knowing because there is no significance. There is no "taking of some things as representative of other things." Experience such as the affective, aesthetic, social, and even technological do not require active responses so they remain unproblematic.

Following Dewey's insight, theory cannot be divorced from practice. Theory and practice are only different phases of a continuum of intelligent inquiry, theory being the "ideal acts and practice; the executed insight." Theories, then, are ideas about what is to be done, preparing us for action, and they function at various levels of abstraction with respect to existential matters. What is to be done with the specific problem at hand must be carefully determined with the proper level of abstraction. Further, ideas about what is to be done are nested, those that are more specific within those that are more general [Dewey, 1891]. Analyses are broader or narrower as specific problematic cases are broader or narrower.

[Whitehead's. 1960] theory of intellectual progress describes three states: "Romance," "Precision," and "Generalization." Romance introduces the student to active involvement with the learning situation, where an emotional connection and curiosity takes place. Once active engagement takes place, the student moves to the "Precision stage," where s/he is required to systematically analyze and synthesize facts, data, generalizations and concepts in order to understand the problems presented. The final stage, "Generalization" provides the integration of Romance and Precision, and fosters intellectual satisfaction and a sense of closure.

Bruner's theory [in Norton and Lester, 1998] of instruction provides an additional influence on case method in that he emphasized the academic usefulness of using games for involving people in the learning process. He discussed how problem-based learning activities such as simulations place individuals initially in a state of "disequilibrium" which produces the need for explanation through questioning by the individual. These activities involve the use of contrast, informed guessing, setting hypotheses, participation, and stimulation of self- consciousness.

[Bloom's Taxonomy, 1956] also has implications for Case Method application in higher education. Case Studies are effective in the practice of Bloom's higher level thinking skills of application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. They provide a way for the student to experience the interrelationship between course concepts and facts in real-life situations at the divergent, rather than the convergent level of thinking skills.

Another contributor to the interactive situational approach, [Piaget, 1970] theorized that knowledge and understanding develop when learners are actively involved in the learning process. According to Piaget, active involvement takes the form of problem solving and social interaction, producing qualitative changes in thought. Piaget's concepts of active involvement, autonomy, and constructivism are interrelated and emphasize experiential learning through which knowledge is not received from external sources, but originates and evolves in the participants as they interact with and interpret environmental stimuli [Brainer, 1978; Wadsworth, 1989, in Norton and Lester, 1998].

The impetus for developing and publishing case studies in the field of educational administration and leadership waned in the late 1970's and throughout the 1980's. Ironically, according to [Norton and Lester, 1998], this decline in the use of practical reality-based case studies and simulations came at the same time that traditional preparation programs for educational administrators were coming under frequent attack.

In the l990's the focus of educational administration/leadership training programs has become broader-based and addresses problem-based learning. There is once again a growing interest in the use of case studies and simulations in administrative training programs.

[Resnick, 1987] argues that in-school learning and work often fails to emulate essential features of learning and work in the real world. Schools place a premium on individual cognition, use of tools, symbol manipulation, and decontextualized reasoning, and situation- specific competencies. For Resnick higher and lower order thinking skills and learning to think are addressed as follows:

1. Thinking is constructed through interactions with people, things, experiences.
2. Thinking, problem-solving and reasoning must be included in everyone's curriculum.
3. In reading, comprehension is a constructive process, which uses the written word combined with past experiences and predictions about what is plausible. It is meaning-imposing.

4. Metacognition (thinking about how to think) is essential to problem-solving.
5. Social settings which facilitate interactions with other thinkers, provide feedback, and cultivate participatory learning and problem-solving are crucial in the development of thinking and judgment.

Parts of Resnick's argument are supported by [Vygotsky's, 1986] insights about social learning. He argued that all significant learning occurs first in the interactions between the learner and others and only then internally. Other researchers and learning theorists have extended this theory to a wide variety of contexts. [Brown, Collins, and Duguid, 1989] argue that generalized learning is usually less effective than situated learning, where context is a critical component in construction both theory and action.

[Newmann and Wehlage, 1993] identify five standards of authentic instruction: higher- order thinking, depth of knowledge, connectedness to the world beyond the classroom, substantive conversation, and social support for student achievement. The three criteria Newmann and Wehlage use to define authentic instruction are: (1) students construct meaning and produce knowledge, (2) students use disciplined inquiry to construct meaning, and (3) students aim their work toward production of discourse, products, and performances that have value or meaning beyond success in school [p.8].

FOUNDATIONS OF THE EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP PROGRAM

Our program and courses employ action research, collaborative learning, and problem- based learning that build upon the Deweyian tradition. A primary goal of the ELP is to integrate theory and practice, resulting in a seamless tapestry rather than individual strands of theory and practice.

The ELP design connects real-world learning and work, and moves beyond synthesis and analysis to actual applications of theory and practice in context. The intent is to help each student emulate how leaders in elementary, secondary, and higher education think, learn, and perform. Thus, students must be able to use available knowledge and to construct meaning and develop new knowledge for real-world problems and contexts.

Theory and practice are given equal priority in the Educational Leadership Program. The curriculum, however, does not start with theory, but with the real world, with the problems students are addressing and will address in their work. Faculty and students use these problems to decide where and how to integrate theory and previous research. The social significance of new knowledge, as noted by [Sykes, 1990], is as important as its efficacy in practice.

In this context, collaboration among students and with faculty, is a means for driving analysis and interpretation to a more rigorous yet action-oriented level. It is grounded in pedagogy. Moreover, the collaboration nurtured in students is exactly the collaboration needed to contribute new knowledge in the disciplines. It is not merely a clever strategy discovered by the workplace, not merely a device for sharing the work load on large, complex projects.

Problem-based learning and action research take the case study approach and move it to rich contexts and cognitive apprenticeships. Learning tasks are challenging and engaging in both a theoretical and a practice orientation. The program attempts to integrate theory and practice, resulting in a seamless tapestry rather than individual strands of theory and practice. Our goal is practice grounded in theory, otherwise, as [Mort and Ross, in Owen, 1991] have pointed out: "There is nothing impractical about good theory ... Action divorced from theory is a random scurrying of a rat in a new maze. Good theory is the power to find the way to the goal with a minimum of lost motion and electric shock." [p.42) Our approach is to start with problems that sample the wide range of leadership issues and actions and that require a balanced blend of theory, research, and practice. In the case studies, we deliberately select significant, challenging, and engaging problems, which have meaning for the students in their work and whose solutions are valued by the field. Students use case studies as practice for identifying problems and issues in their work, understanding those problems well, and applying theoretical and research literature as well as best practice as a means of addressing those problems. Such an approach allows faculty to springboard into contextual or situational analyses of those problems.

Thinking and learning are practical capacities in the exercise of which we actively interact with our surroundings. We advocate active learning, action research, where problems that are meaningful to the learner emerge from situations that fall within their interests and experiences. Unless the learner struggles personally with an issue, the issue is committed to memory and is lifeless, and unless the student has an opportunity to use the information in problem solving and action it is sterile. A cohesive blend of action-research, collaborative learning, and problem-based learning is our means of giving our students this kind of learning. Case studies can be responsive to particular contexts and are ideal for training in a time of reform and restructuring in public education. The context of schooling has changed and continues to change. In addition, social and institutional changes are constantly taking place. Carefully developed case studies can capture this context in a way that enhances training of new school leaders as well as the retraining of present school leaders.

The case method approach provides safety and time for reflection, analysis and feedback. It affords the aspiring administrator an opportunity to address problems in near-real situations in pre-service programs and practicing administrators the opportunity to expand their repertoire of administrative skills through in-service programs.

This approach can also provide students of educational administration with the needed grounding in appraisal of specific situations, and provide them with the opportunity to discover alternative interpretations and choices of strategies as they refine their decision-making and communication skills [Norton and Lester, 1998].

We have expanded what [Dewey, 1958], calls the best way to learn a new idea is with "normal communication with others" [p. 255]. We have expanded this idea to include the extensive use of electronic mediums, most notably Lotus Notes, an extensive software program designed for collaborative and interactive group work, allowing for varying levels of interaction among the students and faculty. We see this as a contemporary means of implementing a most important process of communication in which the learner interacts with the instructor and fellow students in purposeful activities or investigations of common interest.

DISSERTATION

The dissertation is characterized by action-research and may use qualitative and/or quantitative methodologies. After course work is completed, each student in the ELP is expected to complete a dissertation. As one option, students may choose to do a collaborative dissertation.

Collaborative Dissertations

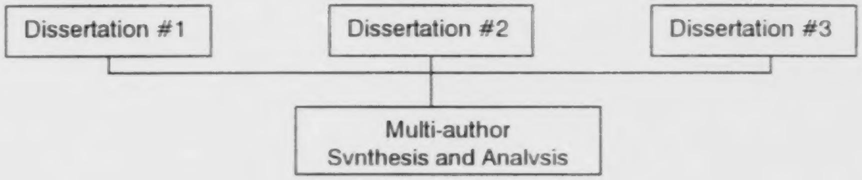
Within the ELP, up to three students may elect to approach a doctoral dissertation research problem collaboratively. The problem would have to be judged sufficient in scope, complexity, and importance to justify the efforts of researchers to approach an action research problem from discrete, yet complementary perspectives.

Our concept of collaborative dissertations follows the recommendations by the Council of Graduate Schools:

> All dissertation research is collaborative in some sense ... Appropriate aspects of the collaborative research include experimental design, data collection, certain technical aspects of data analysis and interpretation, the use and analysis of a common body of data from different aspects of one large research program...Students must be able to identify one aspect of the larger project as their own and be able to demonstrate their original contribution. [p. 10]

A simple model of this collaborative dissertation structure appears in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1
THE STRUCTURE OF THE MULTI-VOLUME DISSERTATION WITH COLLABORATIVE COMPONENT



During the research and preparation of the dissertation, individuals will meet and share information and resources regarding each individual's topic. They will complete an individual dissertation on that topic and then jointly produce the collaborative overview. Should any student end or delay his or her dissertation, the other students will be free to continue the single-author volume without interruption. The overview will then be written by the researchers who remain.

Career Development in the ELP

Students are encouraged to develop their careers in conjunction with their professional strength, interests and needs, while matriculating in the Graduate School and the ELP. We subscribe to a social learning approach to career selection and decision making. Social learning of behavior, with its roots in reinforcement theory and classical behaviorism, as proposed essentially by Bandura [in Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1984] states that:

> It assumes that the individual personalities and behavioral repertoires that persons possess arise primarily from their unique learning experiences rather than from innate developmental or psychic processes. These learning experiences consist of contact with and cognitive analysis of positively and negatively reinforcing events. [p. 235]

Such an approach does not imply that humans are "passive organisms that are controlled by environmental events." Social learning theory recognizes that humans are intelligent, problem-solving individuals who strive at all times to understand the reinforcement that surround them and who in turn control their own environments to suit their own purposes and needs" [p. 236]. Our program provides the skills necessary for career planning and development and other occupational and educational performances, which are learned through successive instrumental learning experiences such as externships and the field project.

CONCLUSIONS

Futurist [John Kao, 1996] states: "It's not enough to be creative if you cannot execute. It's not enough to execute if what you make is something that people don't want. It's not enough to execute and be creative if you don't have the structures and culture to be viable long-term" [P. 1631. To this end, in order to solve the problems with which they are confronted, students have to engage in a process of inquiry and problem-solving in an active manner.

Problem-based learning using the case method approach and simulations can help alleviate current training deficits. This approach provides opportunities for participants to assess their own administrative styles and attitudes; to analyze their personal value systems within the cultural and political context of the organization; and to measure their beliefs against the expectations of the various constituencies with whom they must interact. It also provides opportunities to address, analyze and resolve problems encountered in the real working environment.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Active, productive skill needs to be center stage in educational leadership programs because it includes and informs both the theoretical and practical whenever and wherever they are effective. From this comes models for collaboration that do not just treat symptoms, but instead builds linkages and shared visions of educational communities that effectively integrate the relationship between instruction, organization, governance and accountability.

There must be a redefinition of the work graduate students do and how the students work. [Sykes, 1990] would say the curriculum must be more democratic; it must be activist. Students, therefore, must be given the opportunity to practice special kinds of knowledge such as intuition, judgment, and insight. [Noddings, 1984] described this intuitive teaching and learning process by stating that the teacher's intuitive regrouping of concepts and facts facilitated the students' ability to analyze and synthesize. She emphasized that respect and recognition of the importance of intuitive impressions, as well as analytical reasoning as a process, making teaching and learning easier. Knowledge must be related to the reality of the student's experience. We end up stopping at the abstraction and do not make the connections to working and knowing. Too often, that is where professional competence falls short [Mann, 1992]. There must be connection; educators must reverse the process, talk about the experiences, and then attach the words and goals to the experience.

Leaders must seamlessly integrate theory and practice, reflection, analysis, and action. Treating them as separate entities denies the rapid and substantial changes taking place in education. As [Hargreaves, 1996] states:

> The post-modern information age is blurring these boundaries between teachers' knowledge and university-based knowledge even more. Computer technology and the availability of instant information are annihilating space and the boundaries it creates in the post-modern world. The social geography of professional knowledge is undergoing a profound reconfiguration. Schools and universities are no longer locked in separate, insulated spaces. [p. 105]

Just as the boundaries between these systems are becoming more fragile and permeable, so must the intellectual domains of theory and practice no longer be so rigid and isolated.

Hargreaves suggests several principles for knowledge development and use:

- Diversify what are to count as legitimate forms of knowledge about teaching and education.
- Broaden the forms of discourse through which research knowledge is presented.
- Seek integration of intent across the range and life span of one's activities as an educator, rather than perfect praxis within one or all of those activities.
- Widen what it means to be a teacher to include skill and practice in systematic inquiry.
- Redesign educational policy processes so that teachers can become agents of policy realization, more than conduits of policy implementation.
- Widen what it means to be a university professor or researcher in education to include practical and policy work with other educational audiences and constituencies.
- Redefine academic careers in ways that align them with the more diverse definitions of knowledge, its dissemination, and its use in education.
- Create award-bearing course structures that transcend space and time.
- Provide policy funding and logistical support for establishing teacher networks of professional development and teacher-generated research.
- Establish and support school system/university partnerships and other "bridging cultures" that can connect these two worlds. [121-122]

[Boleman and Deal's, 1990] research revealed that professional programs for administrators rarely give much attention to the development of symbolic and political skills, yet they are crucial components for effective leadership. What better way to develop and fine tune these higher order thinking skills than through the use of Case Method and Action Research?

SUMMARY

The Educational Leadership Program at Johnson & Wales University employs three major pedagogical components that support its mission: a) problem-based learning, b) action research, and c) collaborative learning. They are integrated and implemented through course work which makes extensive use of the case method approach, problem-based learning, and action-research dissertations. These components and the complete infrastructure and delivery system of the ELP are based on an integrated theory that has as its foundation Deweyian principles and incorporate as well elements of constructivist education and social interaction. The ELP's pedagogical approach is based on conceptualizations about learners, learning, and learning environments and contexts, particularly addressed to the population of adult working professionals we serve. The theoretical and research foundations of these approaches are substantial and robust.

The Doctoral Program in Educational Leadership at Johnson & Wales is a constructivist community that works to the degree that we support all members of the community. The intellectual underpinnings, as well as the design of the program, reflect our view that community building is necessary for all members to succeed, for all members to excel. As a community we will not succeed unless we are problem solving together; until all voices are heard we will not learn. We have an obligation to use each other's experience. Our goal is to practice community building skills, how to be supportive, how to reflect, how to do each other's critiquing. If we can work it out here, we can model what school communities ought to be [Taylor-Dunlop, 1996].

All of this has substantial implications for student and faculty teaching, learning, evaluation, and advancement.

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ROLE PLAYS AS A METHOD OF TEACHING MARKETING CASES

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Abstract

The authors summarize the advantages and disadvantages of using cases to teach marketing and identify specific biases which part-time students who are working professionals or executives bring to traditional case discussions. We then describe the role play method and the specific steps required of the instructor in order to use it.

USING CASES TO TEACH MARKETING

There are two basic truths about the challenges of teaching best management practices:

First, since the circumstances and particulars of management problems vary so much, it is impossible for a professor, or anyone, to present the student or novice manager with a set of solutions to all possible management problems. In the absence of such a list of solutions, the student or novice manager must develop the skills and insight necessary to exercise creativity and mature judgment in solving management problems.

Second, it is difficult, if not impossible, for a student or novice manager to develop the ability to make mature judgments without actually making such judgments. That is, people can rarely use effectively the knowledge and insight of others [Gragg, 1940]. Unfortunately, having novice managers learn by trial and error in real businesses could have devastating consequences for those businesses, so management educators are faced with the problem of how to help students develop their creativity and judgment outside of real world business situations.

ADVANTAGES OF USING CASES

Teaching with cases is a long accepted practice in American business schools, especially at the graduate level, dating back to the early decades of the 20th century at the Harvard Business School [Christensen, 1987]. As experiential learning, the case method is powerful because it forces the student to develop a personal, individual interpretation of and solution for the problem presented [Bonoma, 1989]. Further, the student must be prepared to present his or her ideas to the class, both to fellow students as well as the professor. Thus the student faces the same challenges as a real world manager: diagnosing and solving the problem and convincing others that his or her approach is the best solution to the problem. The resulting learning is not merely the memorization of a set of formulae, but the development of creativity and mature judgment. The latter is less subject to a post-exam memory purge and becomes part of the student's repertoire of mental processes available for dealing with future (real world) problems.

DISADVANTAGES OF USING CASES

Cases present real world problems faced by managers. The best cases are "slice of life" so that the student gets the benefits of experiential learning without the potential for bankrupting a real business. Unfortunately, while effective in developing these skills, the case method is extremely demanding for both the student and the professor who must both be actively involved in the discussion. The student can no longer simply sit back and take notes or memorize a set of formulae. The professor can no longer simply read from his or her old lecture notes. but must master the process of leading the discussion as well as the content of the case [Christensen, Garvin and Sweet, 1991]. In addition, the professor must build an atmosphere in which students feel safe enough to risk sharing their thoughts on the case [Christensen, Garvin and Sweet, 1991.] Similarly, the student must study the case until he or she thoroughly understands all the nuances, has diagnosed the problems and developed an appropriate solution. As previously noted, the student must also be prepared to make the case for his or her solution. The fundamental challenge is to understand all the pressures and challenges that faced the manager in the case, including incomplete information, and develop a better solution than the manager did.

We have found that part-time graduate level students often do not devote an adequate amount of time to conquering these challenges. Further, the press of other duties encourages professors to continue using cases they have already prepared -- even when they no longer reflect current business problems or the existing business environment.[1] These problems too often combine to result in so-called case method teaching that is in reality either a question and answer session (at best) or simply another version of a lecture while the students take notes (at worst).

REASONS FOR CONSIDERING ROLE PLAYS

We the authors have taught students in various graduate management programs. In our experience, the design of the program influences the student selection and recruitment process, which in turn affects the typical teaching problems which will confront the professor when she meets with the students in the classroom. We have found that full-time graduate management students, working professionals (part-time graduate management students), and executives tend to exhibit different perceptions of the learning task when confronted with cases.

Getting into the manager's mind is one of the biggest challenges that full-time graduate management students face. They tend to be analytical and oriented toward problem-solving. As a result, they focus, and rightly so, on the explicit facts of the case. However, they often get lost in the facts, losing sight of the people, and their personal viewpoints and agendas [Christensen, 1987].

Working professionals hampered by time pressures and accustomed to presenting and "selling" an idea to peers and superiors so as to move quickly to action plans tend to focus narrowly on their own proposed solution. These students need to slow down and devote adequate time to the analytical stage of the decision-making process.

Executives participating in degree or non-degree management development programs bring to the classroom a variety of well-honed specialties and narrow perspectives. These students have a different challenge: to learn to use empathy to develop an understanding of the viewpoints of others.

Professors moving between these different types of student groups need to develop ways of teaching cases so as to meet the needs of the various groups. It is important to take advantage of the strengths each group brings to the process of case analysis and discussion but also to develop ways to stimulate the development of underdeveloped skills. Our experience in dealing with these challenges led us to try a new technique: using role plays to strengthen both analytical and empathic skills.

DESCRIPTION OF ROLE PLAY METHOD

A case rich in "slice of life" data will contain both quantitative data about the business problems at hand and qualitative data about the people involved in the situation, including both employees of the organization described and its customers. Some cases include information about suppliers and competitors as well. The teaching challenge is to bring all of the essential information into dynamic tension so that students will practice exercising judgment about Òwhat to do.” In the remainder of this paper we present a procedure for developing role play exercises, providing for student participation, and for directing the dramatic interpretation of the case.

DECIDE ON THE NUMBER OF ROLES

To prepare to teach a case by the role play method, the professor begins by deciding on the number of roles which ought to be represented. We find that by including representatives of customer sets we can increase the number of roles to six or eight and allow for dynamic interactions between company representatives and customers and prospects. Table 1 contains an example of role assignments for a case [Dolan, 1995] for which there was only one viable internal company role. The dramatic tension of the case concerns how the product manager will diagnose the root causes of a sharp drop in market share in a key customer segment in the United States (the company's home market).

TABLE 1
ROLES FOR THE "BLACK & DECKER (A)" CASE

Group 1:	Typical Homeowner
Group 2:	Typical Tradesman
Group 3:	Typical Shop Floor Worker
Group 4:	Top Marketer for [Insert Name of Japanese competitor]
Group 5:	Independent Distributor [Insert Location]
Group 6:	Joe Galli of Black & Decker (the product manager)

The subsequent case parts to "Black & Decker (A)" provide students with opportunities to learn how the product manager's action plan was successful. The important point of the role play, however, is to dramatize how the product manager gathers external information from the marketplace for analysis and diagnosis. The role play drives students to an examination of customer behavior with respect to how they purchase and use the various products in the product line. The Japanese competitor and independent distributor roles are important influences in shaping customer perceptions. The product manager takes the risk and reward for developing a marketing program.

The case is rich in data except for the role of the independent distributor. We find, never-the-less, that students use their own experience with modern distribution channels such as Home Depot to portray the distributor struggling with stockouts, dimly lit warehouses, and customers in a hurry who have difficulty perceiving the difference between charcoal gray and black.

DEVELOP ROLE PLAY INSTRUCTIONS

Standardized instructions are important to establish the role play as a structured exercise and to diminish concerns about "fairness." The role play instructions should be printed and distributed in class so that each student has access to the same information. We have found that the format shown in Table 2 contains clear directions about what the student groups should accomplish during their preparation time. Later on in the semester, the instructor may desire to increase the complexity of the role plays and may therefore modify the instructions.

TABLE 2
FORMAT FOR INSTRUCTIONS

There will be [insert number] groups as follows:

[Insert group numbers and case character names]

Each group will meet for 20 minutes to develop answers to the following questions:

[Insert between 6 and 8 questions which apply to all the characters]

When the class reconvenes, the spokesperson for each group will take the role of the group's assigned actor and participate in a role play directed by the instructor. There will be no formal presentations. Groups are urged to analyze and predict the actions and motivations of their assigned actors and to use case data to do so.

The role play method requires that the dramatis personae confront each other during a short period of time in the case, preferably at the end. For this reason, students should be cautioned against attempting to uncover "what really happened" because that will alter their time line. Further, premature discovery of "winners" and "losers" will render some parts too unappealing for students. The unfolding of the instructor's planned confrontations between some of the characters results inevitably in discoveries that some positions are untenable, and should therefore be avoided when students translate learning into the practice of marketing.

DEVELOP THE LIST OF QUESTIONS

The next step is to decide which issues should form the core of the small group discussion so that the student representatives will have considered essential information prior to participating in the role play itself. Without spontaneity, the role play exercise becomes an oral examination of a few selected students. Further, since the best cases conceivably have alternative outcomes, (history is not pre-ordained) the role players should have the flexibility to bring practical experience and personal interpretations to the exercise. Accordingly, the list of questions for the groups to consider ought to focus student attention on important background analysis to prepare them for the play itself as shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3
BACKGROUND QUESTIONS FOR "BLACK & DECKER (A)" CASE

Assignments: Groups 1 - 3	Assignments: Groups 4 - 6
Describe the product you buy	Your perception of B&D in the marketplace
How you buy the product (where, media, word of mouth, price, etc.)	Your plan to exploit B&Ds strength or weakness

What you do with the product and where you use it	What is your strategy?
Who knows that you use the product and how you like it	The questions you have for the other groups

Note that the questions for the customer groups (1 - 3) are designed to develop the idea of a market segment as a self-referencing group of people who use the same criteria for purchase and use. The three student role players will describe very different purchase processes, uses and frequencies of use, and different networks of people with whom they discuss the products. The questions for the marketers (the Japanese competitor, the independent distributor, and the product manager) are designed to develop ideas about the marketing process and the need to gather information from the external marketplace.

A higher level of preparation may be demanded of students later in the semester for cases for which different roles ought to represent vastly different information, perspectives, or business vision. Game theory, competitive response, and negotiations can all be employed. For these more complex cases, it is often undesirable to give precise questions so as to allow the students to prepare the role based on information contained in the case. Table 4 contains an example of action-oriented directions for a role play involving two pricing negotiations by customers in different countries making buying decisions from two different types of distribution channels in a fiercely competitive new product introduction situation.

TABLE 4
ACTION-ORIENTED DIRECTIONS FOR "BARCO PROJECTIONS SYSTEMS (A)" CASE

The BPS Distributor in Germany	If approached by a customer such as IBM, please be prepared to negotiate with both the customer and with BPS Senior Marketing Manager at Headquarters.
The BPS Distributor in France	If approached by a customer such as Renault in France, please be prepared to negotiate with both the customer and with BPS Senior Marketing Manager at Headquarters.
The BPS Senior Marketing Manager at Headquarters	Please be prepared to negotiate with the distributors in France and Germany.
Sony's Distributor in Germany	Please be prepared to make a sales call on the IBM branch office in Germany.
Sony's Distributor in France	Please be prepared to make a sales call on Renault in France.
IBM Branch Office in Germany	You will first summon BPS for a sales presentation and then summon Sony as an alternate supplier.
Renault Corporate Headquarters in France	You will first summon BPS for a sales presentation and then summon Sony as an alternate supplier.

DIVIDE THE STUDENTS INTO SMALL GROUPS

The instructor should divide students into small groups to work together to prepare the case from the perspective of the character assigned to them. This may be done either stochastically (as for instance when students "count off") or by permitting students to form their own groups. Students should use whatever data is given in the case about their character and information to which he has access to imagine how he is reacting to the situation. This part of the process requires both analytical skill (to interpret and use the data) and empathic skill (to understand his perspective). The group then prepares a plan to represent that character to the others, and selects a representative to do so.

As groups of students take different roles, they practice empathy for persons in the roles which they are assigned to interpret. Over the course of a semester, students should have opportunities to play senior executives, disgruntled customers, harassed product managers, and the like. In some classes, small groups of students may prefer to use the role plays as a means of building a collaborative team for other assignments. For this reason, it is wise to scramble identifying numbers with the assigned roles. This also ensures that no one group comes to specialize in any particular type of role (for example, the senior executive). Finally, because students who are assigned to represent persons holding untenable positions may become anxious that the undesirable role somehow reflects the instructor's perception of their capabilities, roles should be assigned at random to avoid the perception of possible instructor bias.

We have found that 20 minutes is an adequate amount of time for the groups to meet, prepare the issues, and designate a role player, provided that students come to class having read the case. We have also found that scheduling the break-out group time at the end of a stretch break both lengthens the amount of time when the students perceive they are "on their own" and stimulates their thinking and creativity.

CONDUCT THE ROLE PLAY

Particularly at the beginning of the semester, we have found that students react well when they have a known entity to "play against." An appropriate analogy might be that of the beginning tennis player and a tennis teacher. The beginning player will benefit from the teacher's accurate ball placement to build skill and confidence in returning the ball. Accordingly, we have found it useful to take a role ourselves so as to provoke and stimulate responses by the other players.

In taking a role, as for example, the role of CEO David Blohm of MathSoft [Swartz and Rangan, 1994], the instructor has the opportunity to develop friction with both the president / founder and the vice president for sales. An important teaching objective for the "MathSoft (A)" case is to lay the foundation for the (B) case in which students are presented with the survival of the company and a new set of choices about product line extensions. Using the (A) case as history or background for the second case part can leave students with the impression that the CEO's rescue of a company in technical bankruptcy (under US law) was easy and painless. Table 5 contains a summary of the ideas usually associated with each role.

TABLE 5
SUMMARY OF DRAMATIC TENSION IN "MATHSOFT (A)" CASE

Mechanical engineer at a Fortune 100 company	Discussion of computational needs; software approval process; budget approval process
Economist at a Fortune Top 20 bank	Discussion of computational needs; software approval process; budget approval process

Director of MIS at Fortune 100 company considering MathCad and MathStation	Usually attempts to purchase a site license for many copies of MathCad at a very low price
Gordon Gossage VP of Marketing at MathSoft	Discussion of lead times; number of prospects in the pipeline; costs of field sales force
Tom Stone VP of Sales at MathSoft	Discussion of last three exhibits in (A) case
Allen Radzow VP of R&D and co-founder	Emotionally attached to MathStation, his "brain child"
David Blohm, CEO and co-founder	The pragmatic business decision-maker

The "MathSoft (A)" case is one in which there are clear winners and losers. To save the company, the CEO must halt development of the MathStation product, fire the field sales force, and double advertising expenditures for the MathCad product. The co-founder of the firm is rarely happy with those decisions. We have found that it is imperative for the instructor to play the role of David Blohm and to use the questions he would ask as the basis for directing the action. This gives the instructor the opportunity to step into character to illustrate how the role playing ought to be done, and then to step back out of character to lead a discussion of "what we learned."

We have found that retaining an element of surprise in the role play is necessary to holding the attention of the entire class, without which, role playing can easily become an oral examination of selected students. When a player encounters difficulty or her comments are not fruitful, it is often useful to give that player a "time out" for consultation with the members of her small group. To provide for these contingencies, it is useful for the instructor to prepare a mental diagram of how the action in the play will flow; the sequencing of introductions of various actors, and opportunities for confrontations and behind-the-scenes consultation between them. Table 6 contains the intended action sequence we use for "MathSoft (A)."

TABLE 6
INTENDED ACTION SEQUENCE FOR CASE IN WHICH INSTRUCTOR TAKES A ROLE

David Blohm, CEO, MathSoft (The Instructor)	Poll the groups to determine who will play each role. Note each player's name and his role. Begin with the most gregarious student playing one of the customer roles. Proceed to the other two customers, talking to the more gregarious one next.
Ask each of the three customers in turn	What product do they want? To use to accomplish what tasks? Why? What will be the purchase approval and acquisition process? How long will it take? Who will be involved?
Ask Tom Stone	Which customers are best prospects for field sales force? How long is the purchase decision and budget approval process for MathStation?
Confer with Allen Radzow	Review the financial condition of company; monthly "burn rate"
Ask Tom Stone	How soon will we see cash flow from sales of MathStation?

Ask Gordon Gossage if he has any ideas	Lead him through the last three exhibits of case and ask for interpretation. (May have to do some coaching.)
Confer with Tom Stone	Cost of field sales force activities vs. expected cash flow
Confer with Allen Radzow	Calculate new "Burn Rate" if Tom Stone and the field sales force positions are eliminated. They are not producing cash flow and won't in the near future. (Allen is usually upset and fights.)
Confer with Gordon Gossage	Develop financial contribution to overhead for each MathCad sale. Develop monthly unit sales level for MathCad now. What monthly unit sales level needed to achieve break-even if field sales force fired? Can your department do that via advertising?
Talk to Tom Stone	Fire him and field sales force. (He usually gets upset and fights)
Talk to Allen Radzow	Tell him of David Blohm's plan to save the company; Let Allen disagree and express severe disappointment that his latest "brain child" will have to be sacrificed.

It is greatly to be desired that each role player moves voluntarily to an appropriate end position for the character. Sometimes it is simply not possible to nudge a student into the desired position, and in those situations, the instructor will work around the student to extract as much of the role play as possible. Criticism of a specific player's end position should be held until the instructor summarizes the expected learning from the case.

As the semester progresses, the instructor will have illustrated her expectations for how students are to play persons in power positions in the cases. Somewhere near the mid-point of the semester, the students ought to be ready to play all the roles themselves, and the instructor will have the opportunity to narrow his participation to the role of director. As director, the most important function of the instructor is to sequence the introduction of the case actors, direct them to ask each other questions, and bring them into a dramatic confrontation. The director may also prompt a player (when needed) concerning the location in the case of vital information. Table 7 contains the intended action sequence for "Barco Projection Systems", a case for which we would advise the instructor not to take a role.

TABLE 7
INTENDED ACTION SEQUENCE FOR CASE IN WHICH INSTRUCTOR TAKES NO ROLE

Instructor Directs:	To Talk To:	About:
BPS Germany	IBM in Germany	Need for projection equipment
IBM Germany	Sony Distributor	Obtain product and price comparisons
IBM Germany	BPS Germany	Provide competitive information about Sony bid. Ask for new offer.
BPS Germany	BPS Marketing Manager	Request support for new product delivery or lower price.

BPS Germany	IBM	Convey new information
Sony Distributor	IBM	Make follow-up telephone call on Sony bid
IBM	BPS Germany	Request BPS Final offer
BPS Germany	BPS Marketing Manager	Requests Final Offer
BPS Germany	IBM	Provides Final Offer
IBM	Sony Distributor	Asks for Final Offer
IBM	Sony Distributor	Which offer will be accepted
IBM	BPS Germany	Which offer will be accepted

The "Barco Projection Systems" case contains sufficient information to repeat the sequence contained in Table 7 with players representing Renault, Sony, and BPS's Distributor in France. Because the BPS distributor in Germany is independent, and the counterpart in France is company-owned, providing enough time for the repeat sequence enables students to develop insights into how companies may provide different distribution channels with different levels of respect and credibility. This particular case is particularly useful to illustrate price/performance pricing, the role of distribution channels in rapidly providing information about turbulent markets, and global competition. In practice, the role play provides students with many opportunities to stray from those themes into issues of customer service, and sometimes into managing the product development process. When the students stray from the primary story which the instructor wishes to develop, it is entirely appropriate for the instructor to direct a player to change the topic under discussion. An example of this might be a direction to the BPS Distributor in Germany to stop promoting the company's customer service and return to the price negotiation, provided of course, that the IBM player had earlier indicated that price would be extremely important.

For cases in which the instructor's role is limited to that of director, it is often useful to include a bit part for a character in the case who can provide comic relief.[2] If the instructor delays calling on the student who plays the comic part until the mid-point of the role play, the class is usually entertained and re-energized. This is especially important in role plays in which the dramatic tension concerns serious mistakes made by some characters or a need for corrective action by others.

SUMMARIZE LESSONS FROM THE ROLE PLAY

The instructor's summary is more important in classes using role plays than in others. The summary serves three distinct purposes. It provides for an ending of the play; a time after which students are to be themselves and no longer speak in character. It provides for a transition for the instructor out of his role either as a player or as director. In the summary, the instructor assumes once again his normal classroom duties of teacher and coach. Finally, the summary provides an opportunity for students and instructor to reflect on what they created and what they learned. Students who went off course can be gently corrected by the instructor (or sometimes not-so-gently corrected by their peers). Oftentimes students will ask if their interpretation of the case was generally consistent with that of other groups. When this happens, the instructor has another opportunity to reflect with the class on the important ways in which individual personalities can influence business decisions, and the ways in which assessing the over-all business situation can be of great importance in developing "the best under the circumstances" solution to a problem.

LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE METHOD

In this paper we the authors have reported our experiences with the role play method in teaching marketing. Our students have reacted favorably to the method. We have found it to be very useful in teaching part-time working professionals and persons enrolled in executive degree programs in business. It is not clear whether the method would work well for students who had little if any practical business experience. Further, it may be inappropriate for other disciplines which rely on cases in which fewer roles are possible.

ENDNOTES

1. "Suave (C)" continues to be available for classroom use due to professorial demand, even though point of sale scanning technology has moved well beyond that described in the case and the case is no longer listed in the catalog.

2. "Barilla SpA" contains a brief account of the difficulties which Armando Porcini, a Barilla customer, encountered when he was persuaded to switch to the company's new distribution system by a company salesperson. Students playing Armando usually take full advantage of the information in the case to provide a highly amusing portrayal.

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TEACHING STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT AT THE CZECH UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE IN PRAGUE

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Abstract

The paper provides an overview of Strategic Management course as it was developed and has been delivered at the Faculty of Economics and Management of the Czech University of Agriculture in Prague. The paper focuses on the balance between individual student contribution and teamwork, domestic and European/world-wide issues, case studies, exercises, business games and other education tools, on methods of assessment, requirements on both students and lecturers. Intended future development of the course is also outlined.

INTRODUCTION - CAN MANAGEMENT BE TAUGHT?

While Western Europe and North America have experienced an ongoing tense debate about management education and the role of management theorists in reshaping business education curricula in countries of Central and Eastern Europe the development has been rather unrestrained. This is in a strong contradiction with a vital need of economies in transition for skilled managers. The reaction on growing demand for people with business education resulted in the current existence of 23 economic faculties/business school in a state with population of ten million people. Only recently the Association of the Czech Business Schools has been established with the aim to exchange information, co-ordinate joint actions, and evaluate curricula. Evaluation of the Czech business schools carried on by the Ministry if Education, Youth and Sports last year did not reveal any major differences among the schools in general. Nevertheless there are fundamental differences in specific courses related to both content and form of delivery.

There is only marginal information available form industry to feed back the curricula - co-operation between universities and respective industries is generally underdeveloped, this concerns especially universities established after 1990. Namely these universities suffer from lack of skilled academic staff, sound research projects, opportunities to exchange lecturers and their expertise with reputable universities in the world.

At the Department of Management at the Czech University of Agriculture in Prague a new strategic management course was developed on the notion that management cannot be taught, but that there are skills and knowledge generally required from managers and these can be developed. We believe that the ultimate objective of any management education should be:

- development of critical thoughts,
- enforcement of analytical, critical and constructive thinking to facilitate effective decision making,
- development of ability to adapt and learn.

The course mission, curriculum, and delivery is built upon these beliefs and provides students an opportunity to develop their skills accordingly.

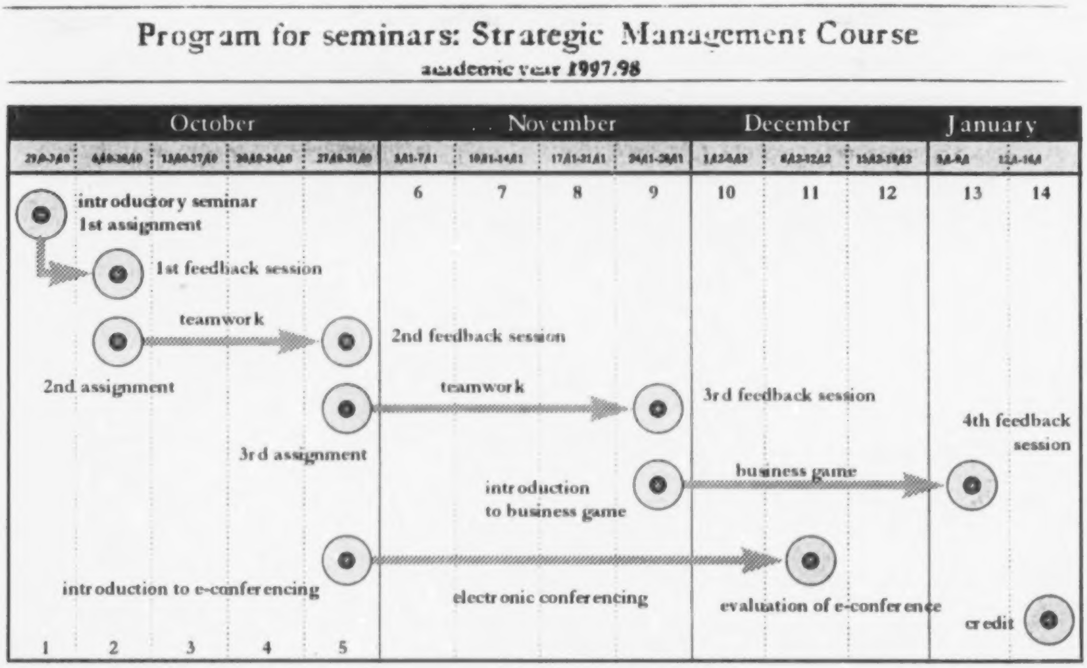
STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT COURSE - STRUCTURE AND CONDUCT

The course is a compulsory within the MSc programme in Agriculture Economics and Management for the fifth year students. Usually about 200 students take the course, all of them attend lectures and for the seminar part of the course the whole lot of students is broken down to 9 groups, each consisting of 4 teams of 4-6 students. The two people /authors of the paper/ are assigned to teach 2-hour lectures and 2-hour seminars a week /traditional break-down at most Czech universities/ during the 14-week winter semester. Within the strategic management course this schedule is not followed rigorously. While lectures are delivered as scheduled /i.e. 2 hours a week/ seminars are organised around particular assignments reducing contact hours to some 5-6 joint sessions and tutorials in between. /See Figure 1/.

Programme for seminars is built as a parallel to lectures and to a large extent is independent of the lectures. While about 6 lectures a semester are reserved for delivery of basic concepts and their critical review, the rest of lectures is delivered by guest speakers to enrich theoretical concepts with real-life experience. Some of the guest lectures are closely related to respective assignments, purpose of the others is to demonstrate various business strategies, management styles, procedures and attitudes to managing change. The format of lectures is fairly common one-way delivery of thoughts, concepts, and critical comments followed by discussions. It is fair to state that the discussions are far more lively during guest lectures in comparison with ordinary concept-delivering lectures.

The seminar part of the course is organised around particular assignments as shown in the Figure 1 below providing sufficient time for completion of the work. All the seminars are led by one person, which also means that the sessions scheduled for weeks 1, 2, 5, 9, 13 and 14 respectively are repeated 9 times a relevant week with a group of 20-24 students each time.

FIGURE 1
SEMINAR PROGRAM


Program for seminars: Strategic Management Course
academic year 1997.98
October
November
December
January
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
introductory seminar
1st assignment
1st feedback session
teamwork
2nd feedback session
2nd assignment
teamwork
3rd feedback session
3rd assignment
4th feedback session
introduction to business game
business game
introduction to e-conferencing
electronic conferencing
evaluation of e-conference
credit

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ASSIGNMENTS AND ASSESSMENT PROCEDURE

The student assignments balance individual input and teamwork. While electronic conferencing is an exercise where student participate individually, all the other assignments are assigned as a teamwork. Students are guided before the start of the semester to set up teams, the procedure itself is not influenced. The students are only strongly advised to consider their team membership carefully as the teamwork has a significant impact on their overall success within the course.

The aim of the first session is to provide the course overview, its mission and objectives, clear explanation of the programme, procedures, assignments, assessment rules, logistics etc. As the course differs from the courses delivered at the Faculty of Economics and Management, special attention is paid to formal conduct of the course and requirements on students, e.g.:

- work in self-managed teams,
- careful planning of activities,
- effective co-ordination of tasks within a team, clearly assigned roles,
- proper timing including keeping deadlines for handing-in of the assignment.

One of the major differences of the course results from emphasis on a teamwork, active presentation and peer assessment. All team are required to sign up for either presentation or peer assessment for each assignment. It means that in one regular joint session there are two teams presenting their work, the other teams acting as panel reviewing the work, discussing and questioning both the report and the presentation. All teams have during the course usually two opportunities to present their report and two opportunities to review the others. All teams have to hand in a copy of each report by given deadline to the tutor, the report is then assessed and written assessment is given back to the team at the relevant session. The outline of the tutor assessment is given in Figure 2.

FIGURE 2
THE TUTOR ASSESSMENT FORM

Teamwork Assessment

Assignment Topic: ______________________________

Team: ____________ Session: ________________ Date: ______________

Evaluation of the report content:

Comments:

Discussion questions:

1.

2.

3.

4.

Presentation/Review Assessment:

Points allocated:

Content Presentation/Review Total

During the course the students are given 5 assignments details of which are provided below:

1st Assignment - Swot Analysis of the Faculty of Economics and Management, Mission Statement, Long-term and Short-term Objectives

This is an introductory exercise the main objective of which is to provide students the opportunity to learn the procedure. It is expected that the students are familiar with SWOT analysis, formulation of mission statement and objectives, what is new for the students is the feedback session - it is therefore paid the major attention.

2nd Assignment - Industry Analysis - Monaghan Mushrooms Case Study (European Case)

The students are required to write up a report summarising their judgement regarding industry prospects, the firm position within the industry and potential for further development including considerations to enter a new market. Students are provided with methodical guidelines and should demonstrate sound analytical skills, ability to judge situation upon limited information. The case is complemented with a guest lecture delivered by a representative of the Czech mushroom producers and students are encouraged to gain additional information as much as possible. The layout of their report is also assessed as the students are guided to produce a management report.

3rd Assignment - Industry and Firm Analysis - Co-operative Farm „Zalsi“ (Czech Case)

The students are required to formulate strategy for the co-operative farm Zalsi based on thorough analysis of external and internal environment, a part of the assignment is to decide about methodology. The teams are provided with the case written up by their tutor and they have an opportunity to obtain additional information at the guest lecture delivered by the farm manager.

4th Assignment - Electronic Conferencing

This assignment serves a multiple purpose: it provides for the experience in using modern information technology both for communication and information search, it develops knowledge and critical thinking, it requires to apply foreign language skills, it provides students the opportunity to be assessed solely on their individual input, etc. For the group of 200 students there are thirteen conferences open on following topics:

- virtual organization
- strategic alliances
- re-engineering
- benchmarking
- change management
- public relations
- networking
- precision farming
- learning organization
- effective team building
- IT in management
- project management
- managing cultures

The students are encouraged to define the relevant concept using all sources of information preferably Internet, then to collect real-life examples of the concept application and provide constructive criticism of either the concept or its application or both.

5th Assignment - Business Game /Woodstock Plus

The business game is scheduled toward the end of the course to synthesise the skills and knowledge of the students. The teams are required to provide initial objectives of their businesses and a strategy to meet them, then to manage their virtual business in accordance with the assigned role within the business management. The game is run for three weeks and the results are presented at the end of the semester on posters. The teams have also to produce their annual report for shareholder meeting, the appendix of which is a summary of learning points. Students are assessed on the basis of their learning not according to the results during the game.

The assessment points allocated to particular assignments are given in Figure 3 below. Each assignment is in accordance with its complexity given the maximum points students can get. Should the course be credited students have to reach the limit of 65 points. This is very strict requirement as it imply that the students have to perform above average to get a credit. It is of course difficult for mediocre students - those who reach at least 40 points during the semester are given additional assignments to have a chance to complete the course. There is nothing unusual that students have to repeat the course regardless the fact that they are about to finish their studies.

FIGURE 3
ASSESSMENT POINTS

Assignment	Assessment /points/		Total points
	Report	Presentation/ Review	
SWOT analysis	5	3	8
1st case study	15	7	22
2nd case study	20	10	30
electronic conferencing	20	0	20
business game	10	10	20

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All the assignments are supplied with assessment criteria and published on the Department notice board and on the computer network. The students get case studies and other guidelines using electronic media but are required to hand in a printed copy of their report by a set deadline /no excuses accepted/. As far as the presentation is concerned the students are encouraged to use various means from blackboard to multi-media presentation. Reading selected parts of their report instead of well prepared presentation is not considered for any points. Review panel faces often difficult task to evaluate both the report content including its methodology, analytical part and suggested outcomes and the way of presentation. But the students develop their skills quickly and by the end of semester quite a number of them is able to show a significant progress.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The Strategic Management course developed at the Faculty of Economics and Management of the Czech University of Agriculture in Prague is based on experience gathered by the two leading academic staff during their studies and/or visits abroad. It does not copy any of the existing courses in foreign institutions, it is tailor-made for the needs of the Faculty and its students. It balances domestic, European and world-wide issues, it is a mixture of business education tools, it is open to change and flexible to absorb new developments. Every year the two large cases are replaced with new ones /keeping the rule that one is of Czech origin written by the tutor, the other one usually covers a branch of European agribusiness and is acquired through European Case Study Clearing House./ The business game is used for not more than three years, the topics for electronic conferencing are changed every year.

The course itself is very demanding both on students and the tutor. The tutor has to read and assess 144 reports a semester /one-page written assessment in any particular case/ very often within a very short period of time between deadline for handing in a report and upcoming feedback session, some 1000 contributions to electronic conferencing, to manage rather complex logistics during the business game (36 teams in 9 markets, 8-10 decision-making periods/ etc.

With the aim to give the course an international flavour it is intended to launch a business game on Internet and to set up either international teams or allow for international competition through inviting students from partnering universities in Europe and perhaps USA. We believe that this move will enrich considerably the course with cross-cultural experience the students will gain while managing their virtual businesses together with or against their colleagues world-wide, it will also provide for rich exchange of knowledge and experience, the Czech students will especially benefit from communicating in foreign language and all involved from communicating with the use of modern communication technology which is becoming one of the crucial managerial skills.

The course is open and flexible enough to accommodate other developments as they occur and thus is becoming very exciting and challenging experience for both the students and lecturers. The opportunities for learning it provides are enormous and apparently never-ending.

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GRADING CASE COURSES TO FOSTER COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

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Abstract

Employers seek recruits who work well in teams, take the initiative in problem solving, listen to others' viewpoints, and share their analyses with colleagues. Colleges believe they build these skills in students. But while we praise these virtues in the classroom, we punish their practice severely. When students share ideas in examinations or written work, we call it "cheating". In case courses we often reward students for talking, but rarely reward them for learning from their classmates' contributions; we have no metrics to gauge their skill in listening. Our grading systems drive students away from the ends we pursue. Here are experiments with different grading systems.

UNDERLYING BELIEFS IN CASE TEACHING

Case teachers generally believe that class discussions require students to think critically, to formulate problems, and to synthesize solutions in far more depth than any other pedagogical approach achieves. We believe case discussion gives our students practice and skills in independent and collaborative thinking -- skills that are highly valued by employers. We believe that the processes we teach in class influence the way our students -- or many of our students, if not all -- think. We believe we add value to our students by requiring that they listen to one another and contribute their ideas to the joint development of recommendations to the managers we study.

These beliefs are part of the underlying value structure of case teachers. We do not question them, or even discuss them much. We find confirmation of these beliefs whenever our best students compliment the class, or when our best graduates return in later years to thank us for the high expectations and rigorous demands we placed on the class. We do not expect our "average" students to drop into our offices years after graduation; in our hearts, we may suspect they did not get the full benefit of the case method. They may not have learned the insightful thinking processes we worked so hard to instill in the class. Still, they had their chances. So long as we did our best to involve all our students in the discussions, we carried out our faculty responsibilities. Right?

I am no longer sure that's right. Particularly among our undergraduate students, we know that most of the class on the opening day of any semester wants structure in the subject matter of the course. Students generally want to know what facts they will be expected to learn, and how they will be examined to see whether they have learned enough to pass the course (or to do well in it). Many, perhaps most, undergraduates are uncomfortable with the idea that their comments in class discussion will have a substantial impact on the course grade. They learn by listening, they may say. They can easily transform a requirement for class contribution into a requirement that they say something that will please the instructor. Influencing their classmates in the search for solutions is secondary or immaterial; impressing the teacher is the primary goal of the case discussion. If we as faculty buy in to this concept, or appear to accept it, we are not carrying out our full responsibilities.

We give "A's" to the students who demonstrate command of the theoretical principles of our disciplines, and who use those principles to analyze problems and argue for reasonable solutions. These are the students who succeeded in impressing us. These are first-rate students. They would probably impress us, whatever pedagogical processes we professed. What we do not know, and do not generally test, is whether they impressed the rest of their classmates. If our goal in the case method is to build *collaborative* problem-solving skills, should we not reward students for their ability to gain from collaboration?

AIMS OF THE CASE METHOD

More and more, we are told by placement officers and recruiters, employers seek graduates who can work well in teams. Especially desirable are students who can work smoothly with colleagues to think critically about the facts, define problems, develop creative plans of action, and implement change. Normally, these will be students with well developed interpersonal skills and capabilities in written and oral communication.

These requirements by our ultimate customers seem to be an ideal fit with the underlying beliefs and values of case instructors. The desired student attributes are precisely what we aim to produce through intensive use of case analysis. This fit gives us a high degree of face validity among faculty colleagues who do not use cases, and may draw many into considering changing their methodology.

These new adopters of the case method may not hold the same basic beliefs and values as do the committed case teachers. They may -- quite rightly -- question the cause and effect relationships the rest of us assume. Do our case discussions really produce an effect on our students?

COMMON BASES FOR GRADING

Typically, case instructors count some mix of class contribution, quiz results, written papers, and mid-term and final exam scores in calculating course grades. Group work may be a component of the mark in class contribution and written papers, but quizzes, exams, and some written analyses are strictly individual in nature. Even where group work is assigned, instructors can have little assurance that the processes involved in producing a group presentation or written paper are collaborative. Often, the strongest student in a group will take responsibility, turning in an individual product with the grateful assent of his or her hitchhiking group mates.

Grading of class contribution is subjective in nature. Even elaborate processes of assigning points after each class session [Seeger, 1988] depend ultimately on the instructor's judgment of each student's input. Was it insightful? ...based on solid data? ...related to course principles? ...influential for the thinking of other students? ...constructive for the class's discussion? ...in agreement with the instructor's assessment of the case? This last point, especially, is treacherous. When we reward students for saying what we like, we fall into a trap: we encourage people to talk to the instructor, not the class.

Quizzes and exams based on text material are purely measures of individual retention and command of the course principles. They fit the traditional lecture/ recitation pedagogy, and remind students that this really is a course like all their other courses, where individual results determine outcomes. (This is not to say quizzes and exams are without merit. Especially for undergraduates, they may force students to read material that otherwise might be passed over entirely.)

Individually written case analyses and case-based final exams are pure demonstrations of a given student's own ability to penetrate the key issues of a specific case and write a persuasive set of recommendations.

For most of the grading elements, then, we reward individual brilliance. Because students respond to their reward systems, the goal of collaboration falls by the wayside. Even if we set out to build group analytic skills, most of us finish the semester with a class full of individual performers, and we evaluate them on that basis.

DESIRED BASES FOR GRADING

Some years ago when W. Edwards Deming spoke to a large group of academics in Boston, I had the opportunity to ask a question from the floor. I had always been intrigued by Deming's rejection of formal evaluation and appraisal systems; he felt they defeated most efforts to unify people around common goals. I asked him, "How can we, in colleges and universities, do without formal evaluations and grading?" Deming responded, "You don't need them. Students know whether they've learned," and turned to take the next question.

Students will know whether they have learned the rote material of a course, but they may not know whether they have learned skills like collaborative deliberation and team problem-solving. Nor will traditional grading mechanisms tell them. If we want to produce graduates who fit the needs of our employer customers, we must set up our criteria and expectations in terms the students can understand and measure.

Teamwork in graded course elements like exams and quizzes is frowned upon in most courses. We call it "cheating," and we penalize it severely. We go to great lengths to prevent students from interacting on individually-written case analyses. We look carefully for evidence of illicit communication on take-home assignments and exams. At the same time we state an objective of training students in collaborative, creative analysis. We are, in Steven Kerr's words [Kerr, 1995], "rewarding A while hoping for B." Team skills will remain a vain hope if we continue to reward individual accomplishment.

AN EFFORT TO REWARD TEAM SKILLS

To build team skills, we need to structure the course to capitalize on team activities, across the board. Since 1993, I have experimented with approaches to grading the various course elements -- class contribution, quizzes, written analyses, and final exams -- while taking into account the student's impact on and learning from the group as a whole. There is no claim here that optimal grading processes have been developed. This report is a work in progress; it describes practice at the end of 1997. Readers are invited to use whatever fits their own circumstances, and to modify any or all of these ideas. The author would be delighted to hear of your modifications and experience in applying these ideas to your own classes.

In *class contribution*, the course objective as defined by the syllabus is to see every student leave every class with a full understanding of that day's case and text material. Everyone is charged with responsibility for helping the others understand. This definition in repeated many times during the semester. It is emphasized at mid-term, when I inform all students of my own perception of how well they are helping others understand. At the end of the semester, I ask each student to name the others who were most influential in forming their own ideas about the cases; that poll is used to promote the class contribution grades of students whose impact was greater than I had given them credit for. The poll gathers data on student contributions in small groups as well as whole-class discussion. (But note that I do not use group analyses and prepared presentations as an element of my undergraduate courses; too often, in my experience, mediocre presentations hinder class understanding more than they contribute creative insights.)

In *quizzes*, it is common to test student memory by giving closed-book objective tests. Attempting to make the quiz situation more lifelike, more similar to a working situation after people have left school, I make quizzes open book, and discuss students' questions about the material before testing the class. I don't try, and never have tried, to cover text material in lecture form. Students are expected to acquire concepts from the text outside of class, and apply the concepts during case discussion inside the classroom. Admittedly, this is still a grading segment based on individual performance, in spite of the effort to use the group to resolve misunderstandings and questions raised by their reading of the book.

Written case analyses, whether group or individually written, are geared to take advantage of the whole class's ideas. Students bring their printed papers to class, but hold them through the class discussion and are encouraged to correct any errors they discover by listening to others' ideas. They are free to add a postscript at the end of the paper, modifying or even reversing the conclusions they drew before the class. These hand-written second thoughts get full weight in the paper's grading. The idea is to give the best possible recommendations to management, for the best possible reasons.

The *final examination*, too, draws heavily from class discussion. Students receive the exam case a week before the scheduled exam period, and are encouraged to work together to analyze it. The first half of the examination is devoted to discussing the case, with the aim of assuring that all students understand it fully -- just as in all our class discussions. Unlike other discussions, I take a passive role in the class leadership. Near the end of the time for discussion, I ask for any solutions or recommendations not yet shared with the class: "I don't want to open some blue book and find a perfect solution that somebody hoarded or hid from the class. This is not a competitive exercise. You can only confirm your own ideas by airing them, and you are obligated to help others confirm or change theirs." With 45 to 60 minutes of the period remaining, blue books are distributed, along with three or four sharply-focused questions.

WEIGHTING THE COURSE ELEMENTS

In three years of experimentation with these grading ideas, I have altered the weights of the various course components several times. At the end of 1997 the weighting stood at 40 percent for class contribution, 10 percent for quizzes, 40 percent for written analyses, and 20 percent for the final examination.

Careful readers will note that the figures above total 110 percent. The extra ten percent is a safety factor for the students: the weight of the *weakest* factor for each student will be diminished by that ten percent. Thus, if a student's worst performance is on quizzes, the quizzes will be counted at zero percent. If class contribution is the weakest -- as feared by many of the shyest students -- it will count only 30 percent.

One exception to the percentage weights depends on the student's final examination. An A on the final -- albeit a rare event -- earns that student an A in the course, regardless of performance in the other course components.

STUDENT RESPONSES TO TEAM-ORIENTED GRADING

Many of our undergraduate students seem deeply conditioned by the lecture/ recitation model of higher education they have experienced before entering case classes. They crave structure, certainty, and predictability. They seem uncomfortable with ambiguity and unwilling to make assumptions. They hesitate to recommend action in the absence of all the facts, preferring to recommend "further analysis" or "specialized study" of the situation. They accept opinions as statements of fact and fail to check for internal consistency of the facts they perceive. They seem naturally self-centered and competitive, rather than mutually supportive.

Students fitting this profile may be uncomfortable in a case class. They may have difficulty understanding what behavior is desired. Given understanding, they may have difficulty creating the appropriate behavior. Consistency in the instructor's expectations and rewards must be important if students are to succeed. Students in these classes often voice surprise, for example, at having a chance to correct their views on a written paper -- in spite of our having described the process in detail at the beginning of the term. On the first written assignment, many students fail to take advantage of the "postscript opportunity;" they write a p.s. expressing regret that they did a poor paper, instead of making the paper better. By the second written analysis paper, these students have learned to use their chance. They learn from the class discussion and improve their papers and grades as a result.

In their final exams as well, many students take advantage of insights gained in the class discussion. Some give credit to their classmates for helpful ideas. These students demonstrate that they have listened and learned from their classmates.

Not all students, of course, listen and learn. Some pay little attention to others' ideas in class discussions. Many do not write a p.s. on a written paper at all. Some, I believe, come into the final exam with pre-prepared answers and simply write them into the blue books -- ignoring contradictory evidence cited in the class discussion.

Overall, the grade average of a typical class has changed little since before I began experimenting with listening and learning as a grading criterion. The A students, I suspect, would earn A's regardless of my criteria. But the distribution of marks between the rest of the students may be quite different than in the old days. People who work to help others understand, and ask others for help in understanding, and build on others' ideas, are surely doing better than they would have. Some of them may be among the A students.

From the faculty standpoint, it feels good to match my course expectations and rewards to the needs of our students' future employers. Hard evidence that the approach makes a discernable difference to the students is difficult to generate. I may have to wait until some of last year's students drop in to say it was a good course.

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INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARD THE CASE-STUDY METHOD

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Abstract

This study explores the attitudes of U.S. -based international students toward the case-study method. It is a follow-up on a previous study on how American students' feel about the same pedagogic tool.

The case-study method is often viewed as the most popular teaching method.[1] This is particularly true in learning settings that involves introducing students to the complexities business managers face on a daily basis.[2] According to John Dewey, a student learns best when he is required to wrestle with, and find his way out of, a real-life problem. Without such a challenge, the student will not learn, not even if he can recite some correct answer with a hundred percent accuracy[3]. This view is academicians but by business managers as well. held not only by The latter contend that case studies can be an effective tool of developing a variety of managerial skills and that all core business courses should utilize cases as a pedagogical instrument.[4]

In an empirical study presented at the 1997 annual meeting of the World Association for Case Method Research and Application, it was found that the vast majority of students displayed a favorable attitude toward the case method. Specifically, 91 percent of American graduate students and 86 percent of undergraduate students preferred courses employing the case-study method to courses where the lecture approach was used.[5]

The question this study seeks to answer is: how do international students feel about the case method as contrasted with the lecture approach? It is instructive to note that the term "international students" as used here refers to "foreign students" pursuing their studies in the United States.

STUDY DESIGN

Questionnaires were distributed to 29 international students enrolled in capstone strategic management courses in an American Midwestern University. Of the 29 students, 17 were graduate and 12 undergraduate. The students represented a variety of countries, including Hong Kong (1 student), Japan (1), Malaysia (1), Philippines (1), Poland (4), Russia (1), Taiwan (1), Tanzania-East Africa (1), Thailand (1), and Turkey (1). Six students did identify their native countries.

All of the students participating in the study seemed to have had a prior exposure to the case-study method in the United states. All of them had at least one previous course where the case study was used. Actually, the majority of graduate students (53%) had four courses or more while the majority of undergraduate students (50%) had three courses in which the case method was utilized as a principal pedagogical tool.

RESULTS

THE CASE METHOD VS. LECTURES

To place students' attitude toward the case method in a meaningful context, the students were first asked whether they preferred courses where the case method was used or courses that relied solely on lectures.

As can be seen in Table 1, about 25% of all respondents preferred the straight lecture, with 24% of graduate students and 25% of undergraduate students displaying such a tendency.

Table 1 also shows that about 75% of all students prefer the case method, with 76% of graduate students and 75% of undergraduate students exhibiting such a preference. It is interesting to note that among graduate students, more female students (80%) than male students (75%) seemed to prefer the case approach. Similarly, among undergraduate students, more female students (86%) than male (60%) showing similar attitude.

Even though the percentage of international students with a favorable attitude toward the case method is high, it is lower than the percentage of American students. As displayed in Table 2 whereas 86% of American students like the case method, about 75% of international students do so. It should also be noted that more international students, 24%, than American students, 8%, display a preference for the lecture approach.

TABLE 1
INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS' PREFERENCE FOR THE STRAIGHT LECTURE AND CASE-STUDY METHOD (N=17 GRADUATES, 12 UNDERGRADUATES)

Students' Preferences	Graduate			Undergraduate		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Lecture	25%	20%	24%	40%	14%	25%
Case Method	75%	80%	76%	60%	86%	75%
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

TABLE 2
PREFERENCE OF AMERICAN AND INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS FOR STRAIGHT LECTURES AND CASE-STUDY COURSES (N=204 AMERICAN STUDENTS AND 29 INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS)

Students' Preferences	American Students		International Students	
	Graduate	Undergraduate	Graduate	Undergraduate
Lecture	4%	12%	24%	25%
Case Method	91	80	76	75
No response	4	8	0	0
Total	100	100	100	100

STUDENTS' PREFERENCE FOR THE LECTURE METHOD

An attempt was made to identify the reasons why some students (25% of the respondents) showed a preference for lectures over the case method. These students were offered five statements and were asked to rank them on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 meaning most important and 5 least important. The statements were: (1) I like to learn concepts which are usually emphasized in a lecture course, (2) case-study classes tend to be dominated by pointless, rambling discussions, (3) i am shy and do not fee comfortable speaking in a group setting, (4) I prefer to work alone, and (5) most professors do not have the skills necessary to conduct effective group discussions. Students' responses are displayed in Table 3.

As reflected in Table 3, the top two reasons why students preferred the lecture approach over the case method were: "I am shy" and "I like to work alone." About 60% of the graduate students and 70% of the undergraduates said that "shyness" was the main reason. Further, 60% of the graduates and 70% of the undergraduates indicated that the desire to "work alone" was their second important reason.

By contrast, graduate American students ranked the statements "Professors lack moderators' skills" and the "Case method classes are dominated by pointless, rambling discussions" as their number one and number two respectively for favoring lectures. The American undergraduates, however, ranked "I like to work alone" and "I like to learn concepts" as their number one and number two reasons for their preference for the lecture approach.

TABLE 3
THE REASONS WHY INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS PREFER THE LECTURE APPROACH
(N=4 GRADUATES, 3 UNDERGRADUATES)

Statement	Graduate		Undergraduate	
	Ranking*	%**	Ranking*	%**
I am shy	1	60	1	72
I like to work alone	2	50	2	70
I like to learn concepts	3	45	5	35
Case-method classes are dominated by pointless, rambling discussions	4	45	3	30
Professors lack moderators' skills	5	20	4	18

* 1 = most important, 5 = least important

** Each percentage reflects the largest number (i.e., majority) of students responding to each statement.

STUDENTS' PREFERENCE FOR THE CASE METHOD

As was pointed out earlier, the majority of graduate students (76%) and undergraduate students (75%) displayed a preference for the case method over lectures. To determine the reasons underlying this tendency, the respondents were given five statements and were asked to rank them on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 meaning most important and 5 least important. The statements were: (1) The case method is more interesting than lectures, (2) the case method is more practical than lectures and come as close to the real world as possible, (3) the case method allows me to sharpen my analytical, communication, logical, and public speaking skills, (4) I learn and remember more concepts from case studies than from lectures, and (5) I am a team player and the case method normally involves teamwork. The results of students' ranking of the five statements are presented in Table 4.

The largest number of graduate students (35%) assigned a top ranking to the statement, "The case method is more practical than lectures" while 20% gave a second ranking to the statement, "The case method sharpens my analytical, communication, logical, and public-speaking skills." On the other hand, most of the undergraduate students, 25%, ranked as their first choice the statement, "The case method is more interesting than lectures while 33% of them ranked as their second choice the statement, "The case method is more practical than lectures."

TABLE 4
THE REASONS WHY INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS PREFER THE CASE METHOD
(N=13 GRADUATES, 9 UNDERGRADUATES)

	Graduate		Undergraduate	
Statement	Ranking*	%**	Ranking*	%**
Case method is more practical than lectures	1	35	2	25
Case method sharpens my skills	2	29	3	33
Case method is more interesting than lectures	3	24	1	25
I learn and remember concept	4	29	4	42
I am a team player	5	53	5	50
No opinion	-	6	-	0

* 1 = most important, 5 = least important

** Each percentage reflects the largest number (i.e., majority) of students responding to each statement.

CRITICISMS OF THE CASE METHOD

What are the drawbacks of the case method as perceived by international students? To answer this question, the students were asked to rank five statements on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 meaning most important and 5 least important. The statements were: (1) most of the cases used in strategy courses are outdated, (2) most instructors do not devote a sufficient amount of time discussing concepts whose understanding is crucial to the case issues, (3) most instructors lack the essential skills of conducting group discussions, (4) most cases do not provide students with enough information to make informed decisions, and (5) many cases are not clearly written and are poorly organized. The students' ranking of these statements are shown in Table 5.

The largest number of graduate students, 35%, and undergraduates, 33%, assigned a ranking of 1 to the statement, "Most of the instructors do not devote a sufficient amount of time discussing concepts whose understanding is crucial to the case issues." However, while most of the graduate students, 29%, ranked second the statement, "Most instructors lack the essential skills of conducting group discussions," the undergraduates ranked second the statement, "Most cases do not provide students with enough information to make informed decisions."

TABLE 5
INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS' CRITICISMS OF THE CASE METHOD
(N=13 GRADUATES, 9 UNDERGRADUATES)

	Graduate		Undergraduate	
Statement	Ranking*	%**	Ranking*	%**
Insufficient time to discuss concepts	1	35	1	33
Instructors lack moderators' skills	2	29	5	33
Lack of sufficient information	3	41	2	42
Cases are poorly written and organized	4	24	4	25

Cases are outdated	5	24	3	42
No response	-	6	-	17

* 1 = most important, 5 = least important
** Each percentage reflects the largest number (i.e., majority) of students responding to each statement.

DIFFICULTIES WITH THE CASE METHOD

What difficulties do students typically encounter in courses where the case method is used? To answer this question, the respondents were asked to rank the following five statements on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being most important and 5 least important: (1) lack of time to meet with other teammates, (2) difficulties in setting up team meetings due to scheduling conflicts, (3) personality conflicts among team members, (4) incompetent teammates who lack the conceptual and analytical skills needed to contribute to the team project, and (5) dealing with freeloaders. The results are presented in Table 6.

Both graduate and undergraduate students share the same opinion concerning the top two difficulties they face in case-method courses. Thus, 47% of the graduates and 33% of the undergraduates feel that "Difficulties in setting team meetings" is the top hurdle. Also, 35$ of the graduates and 33% of the undergraduates feel that "Lack of time to meet with teammates" is the second most important difficulty. It is interesting to note that these are the same difficulties U.S. students indicated in an earlier study as the two top problems they encountered in case-method courses.

TABLE 6
STUDENTS' DIFFICULTIES WITH THE CASE METHOD
(N=13 GRADUATES, 9 UNDERGRADUATES)

	Graduate		Undergraduate	
Statement	Ranking*	%**	Ranking*	%**
Difficulties in setting up meetings	1	47	1	33
Lack of time to meet with teammates	2	35	2	33
Personality conflicts	3	35	5	50
Incompetent teammates	4	29	3	42
Dealing with the freeloaders	5	41	4	67

* 1 = most important, 5 = least important
** Each percentage reflects the largest number (i.e., majority) of students responding to each statement.

COURSE WORKLOAD

The students were then asked how the workload in case-study courses compared with the workload in lecture classes. The students' responses are presented in Table 7. About 88% of all the respondents stated that the case method involved more work than lectures, with 905 of the undergraduates and 80% of the graduates feeling this way. While 8% of all respondents stated that the same amount of work was involved in both types of courses, none of them indicated that the case method involved less work than lecture classes.

TABLE 7
STUDENTS' PERCEPTION OF THE WORKLOAD IN CASE-METHOD COURSES AS COMPARED WITH LECTURE COURSES (N=13 GRADUATES, 12 UNDERGRADUATES)

Workload in case method	Graduate			Undergraduates			Average
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Average	
More than lectures	92%	80%	86%	80%	100%	90%	88%
Same as lectures	8	0	4	20	0	10	7
Less than lectures	0	20	10	0	0	0	5
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

FREQUENCY OF USE OF THE CASE METHOD

Finally, an attempt was made to find out how the students viewed the frequency with which the case method was used in various courses. This is, do they feel that the case method was used in too many courses, only in the appropriate courses, or not used widely enough. The results are displayed in Table 8.

TABLE 8
FREQUENCY OF USE OF THE CASE METHOD (N=13 GRADUATES, 9 UNDERGRADUATES)

Frequency of Use	Graduate Students	Undergraduate Students	Average
Used in too many courses	12%	17%	15%
Used only in appropriate courses	47	67	57
Not used widely enough	41	17	29
Total	100	100	100

As can be seen in Table 8, 46% of all respondents felt that the case method was used only in the appropriate courses, and 40% said that the case method was not used widely enough. Only 7% of the students, mostly undergraduates, thought that the case method was used in too many courses.

Table 9 contrasts the international students' responses with those of the U.S. students regarding the frequency of use of case method in various courses. As shown in the table, more international students (15%) than U.S. students (7%) felt that the case method was used in too many courses. On the other hand, more U.S. students (40%) than international students (29%) felt that the case method was not used widely enough in various courses.

TABLE 9
FREQUENCY OF USE OF THE CASE METHOD – U. S. STUDENTS VS. INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

Frequency of Use	U.S. Students	International Students
Used in too many courses	7%	15%
Used only in appropriate courses	46	57
Not used widely enough	40	29
No opinion	6	0
Total	100	100

CONCLUSION

This study shows that international students, like U.S. students, favor by a wide margin the case-study method over the lecture approach even though the vast majority of them believe that the workload in the case method is greater than in lectures.

It is interesting to note, however, that the number of international students (76%) who prefer the case method is smaller than the number of U.S. students (86%) who display such a preference. Also, of the international students who favor lectures over the case method, 60% indicate that they prefer to work alone rather than in teams, as opposed to 50% of the U.S. students who favor lectures. Additionally, twice as many international students (15%) as U.S. students (7%) state that the case method is used in too many courses.

In discussing these additudinal discrepancies with international students, the students' cultural backgrounds seem to play a prominent role. The students maintain that the case method is rarely if ever used in their nations' schools where the traditional role of the instructor as dispenser of knowledge and the students' role as recipient of knowledge and not takers still largely prevail. Further, several students, especially the Asians, think that due to the tendency of their culture to foster public politeness, they find it uncomfortable to critique other students' reports, to engage in class deliberations, and to make oral presentations. Such cultural hurdles are often compounded by language difficulty.

Although the findings of this study support an earlier study involving U.S. students, two caveats need to be kept in mind before sweeping generalizations can be made. First, the findings are based on a relatively small sample of international students, and second, the study is limited to one Midwestern school in the U.S. Despite these limitations, however, the study serves as an additional building block to the steadily mounting body of knowledge on the popularity of the case method among students.

ENDNOTES

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REFLECTIONS FROM THE HEART...THE APPLICATION OF CLASSROOM-BASED NARRATIVES TO THE PROCESS OF INCREASING TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS - A NEW PAGE IN THE STORY OF SUCCESS...A NEW CHAPTER IN THE LIFE OF HOPE

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Abstract

This article focuses on classroom-based narratives that reflect how a convenience sample of twenty-five graduate students, who were also practicing teachers, utilized the real life events and experiences of their students to help them become instructional explorers and effective problem solvers. In the narratives, the teachers functioned as freelance writers, who attempted to better understand and cope with the challenges of teaching in a large urban school district. The case studies and self reflections helped them to analyze their beliefs and demonstrate how thinking about and reflecting on instructional approaches can result in changed paradigms and improved teaching.

INTRODUCTION

One of the most compelling responsibilities we can have on the human landscape of life is to live, learn, and write our own stories of this evolving landscape. Stories about whom we are, what we do, our dreams and aspirations, our successes and our failures, our expectations of ourselves and others, our triumphs and disappointments, in other words, a kaleidoscopic view of where we are on the journey.

What are the stories of our lives, work, family, and love? We have all experienced different encounters, met different people, and traveled in different directions. Therefore, each of us is responsible for writing our own dialogues. We write our stories by living them. The dialogue between where we are, and where we want to go, is the voice that builds our direction and hope for the future. Yesterday's decisions become today's determinant for tomorrow's destiny. The future carries no guarantees, only possibilities. As individuals, we have to determine what we will do with the possibilities in order to have some control of the destiny that awaits each of us. We have to ask ourselves what we will do with the hopes and possibilities that could change the flow of tomorrow's happenings? Hope gives us undaunted strength in a world of promise and possibilities. Hope is the human spirit's way of responding to the future of a dream or the faith in a new beginning. Nothing can be achieved without hope. No builder ever laid a brick without hope. No poet ever put a pen to paper without hope. No painter ever put a brush to canvas without hope. No teacher ever transformed a child's life without hope.

If there were special gifts that could be bestowed upon our world, they should include: hope, self reflection, perseverance, empathy, patience, and the will to face the future as a role model of excellence for young people. Our students look to us for wisdom and guidance, as they begin the dialogue that will orchestrate the choreography of their dance with life. What will we, as educators, contribute to the musical score of their lives? How can we ensure that the rhythm puts them in concert with the "beat" or requirements and demands of the society in which they will be expected to function as contributing participants? What type of lyrics can we provide for them that will encourage, empower, inspire, and challenge them to strive for the highest peak of their mountain of dreams?

As educators, in the rush of "doing education," we often fail to just stop and "listen to the music." We overlook the instruments (children), and miss the beautiful melodies they are so capable of creating and performing. However, when we take time, step back, reflect on and record the words and deeds of both the instruments and the conductor (teacher), it is then that the discords can be examined, replayed, and corrected, which will help to create a harmonious teaching and learning environment where the collective voices of students and teachers share in a vision.

How strong the heart of the human condition becomes, depends upon our ability and willingness to reflect on the daily events in classrooms and schools, and to record these as case studies or classroom narratives; then use these as guides in helping us to rethink, revise, and restructure how we go about doing the business of schooling.

As we articulate our stories, hopefully, we will become more proficient at teaching our students how to sing songs of hope, love, life, knowledge, and self worth.

RATIONALE

Effective teacher education programs in colleges and universities, have as essential components of their courses of study, action research, case studies, and teacher reflections. These three elements are a catalyst for providing pre-service and practicing teachers with the tools to personally gather information and evidence that will aid them in making decisions about best practices, effective instructional strategies, and appropriate instructional materials. They also will help teachers construct a bridge between theory and practice, and will aid them in the process of learning how to solve and resolve issues that are directly and indirectly related to successful classroom instruction. In addition, these methods will illustrate how "thinking about and reflecting on" instructional approaches and practices can result in changed paradigms and improved teaching.

This paper will address two of these, namely, case studies or case writing, and teacher reflections. Case writing and teacher reflections are excellent ways for teachers to become aware of and recognize the complex problems associated with teaching and learning. These methods help teachers peel back the layers of confusion regarding "what works best, and what does not work." They give the teachers a reflective, but "nonthreatening" mirror that can be used for self examination, self analyzation, self evaluation, and self improvement. Case writing and teacher reflections provide teachers with such insights as who they are, what they value and why, their expectations of themselves and their students, and their visions and goals.

Education, and teachers in particular, have received a great deal of attention and criticism in the public domain for a number of years. This attention has created the misconception of many of our teachers as tedious, indolent individuals, who stick to the outdated, uninteresting, and mundane ways of doing things. Typically, teachers have been portrayed as individuals who are reluctant to accept changes and opposed to innovations. However, these accusations have not been confirmed [Richardson and Anders, 1995]. What seems to be validated is the fact that teachers may exhibit more resistence to external changes or that which is externally mandated. Research has indicated that if teachers are included in making decisions about the teaching and learning process, and if they can claim some control over the learning environment, they are more willing to accept and adopt innovations and changes. On the other hand, any imposition from external sources will most likely provoke resistance and detrimental attitudes toward change adoptions.

Clearly the role of the teacher is important in modifying the learning environment. In fact, there is continuous evidence that teachers are constantly changing. Some examples are the adoptions and adaptation of new methodologies, instructional strategies, instructional materials, and the incorporation of new knowledge from staff development research and programs into their own curriculum. In essence, teachers do not fear experimentation in their classrooms. They are not intimidated by new ideas, nor are they afraid to explore new educational territories. They are willing and anxious to volunteer themselves as instructional guides who will investigate, probe, direct, challenge, and encourage. They are courageous enough to, if necessary, convert their habitual teaching modes into practical realities, if it means the outcome will be the improvement of student learning and academic success. The development of case studies and self- reflections is one vehicle by which teachers can become that "explorer" and "problem solver."

Defining Case Studies

A case study is the general description of a situation. Ashbough & Kasten [1995], Kowalski [1991], and Merseth [1997] agree with referring to a case study as the narrative description of an incident, not its intended purpose. In this paper, the terms "case study" and "narratives" are used interchangeably. The nature of the knowledge base in any professional field relates directly to the purpose of the case study. Thus, depending upon the field and the context, the case study focuses on associating academic content and realities. The case study entails using realistic incidents in which teachers acquire analytical skills, learn how to synthesize information, know about concept development, apply theoretical concepts, and other abstractions against concrete situations [Ashbaugh & Kasten, 1995].

Sampling Features

A convenience sample of twenty five-graduate students represented the subjects in this study. All participants were enrolled in an Educational Research in Reading course in a Midwestern private university. The subjects, holding teaching positions in one of the largest public school system in the USA, were pursuing their master degrees in Reading Literacy. In general, the subjects' ages were between late twenties and early fifties; they possessed a various range of teaching experience from three to thirty-five years or more. The course focused on recent research in reading instruction. The description read:

> "In this course, participants will survey the recent research in the field of reading theory and reading instruction, as well as research related to the reader, children's literature, and effective reading programs. The emphasis will be placed on reading and discussing current research, which has made a major impact on both theory and practice. Each participant will identify a research question and develop an action research plan."

Procedure

This paper focuses on a group of teachers who were dedicated, caring, and adventurous enough to take a risk and step into the unknown and unfamiliar territory of writing narrative cases, based on their everyday experiences as facilitators of learning.

As with most schools, and especially urban schools of large cities, the challenges are tremendous. However, it is extremely gratifying and humbling to see the efforts of teachers, students, parents, and administrators, as they continuously struggle to find solutions to the problems that society has created and transplanted into our schools. These teachers, in a first attempt at narrative cases, jumped "head first," without a safety net, into trying to put into words, the daily classroom situations, emotions, failures, and small glimmers of breakthroughs.

The writing of the cases evolved "accidently," as the teachers started discussing the assigned journal readings and other materials on reading research. Their major complaint was that much of what they were reading and learning did not address the atypical problems they faced on a daily basis. Therefore, they felt the external problems of their students prevented them from effectively applying the research. They were asked to discuss and further explore the problems they encountered and perceived as a hindrance to teaching and learning. It was suggested they "write" about these various incidents and bring them to class to share and discuss. This extrinsic force stimulated the identification, revision, and analysis of a particular instructional or non-instructional dilemma emerging during the learning process.

The classroom-based narratives vary markedly in length because situations differ from each other. In the narratives, teachers are free-lance writers who use their talent, soul, and heart to characterize situational teaching. The narratives in this study are purposefully not taken to their conclusions because they may not have been finalized, yet, neither is there a set of prescribed data standards. In fact, one situation may have originated another one, chaining a series of related events. Very often these later events are excluded from the narratives.

As stated, teachers were asked to write about their own experiences. They were coached to activate their prior knowledge, to retrieve from their long-term memory any situation that may have impacted their ways of doing things. When writing their narratives, no restrictions about grammatical and/or use of standard English rules were considered. However, directions were given about authenticity, sequence, and relativity, even though the process of analysis was not. The importance of allowing the teachers to "free write" was to help them focus on their thinking and structure their ideas to ensure that by telling or recreating the story, insight and/or self-reflection would arise and provoke their own questioning that could change the flow of their teaching practices. Proponents of classroom-based narratives often stress that the analysis of the situations does not necessarily yield a single point of view. There are no "right answers" in self-reflections. There are no "wrong views" in classroom-based narratives.

SELECTION OF CRITERIA OF NARRATIVES

A number of criteria guided the selection of classroom-based narratives. First, all the narratives in this collection had to depict actual events that occurred in instructional practices. They are real, not fictional. The cases satisfy the criterion that they "bring a chunk of reality" into the professional classroom [Lawrence, 1960].

A second criterion for selection was that the narratives reflect the reality of classroom practices. None of the narratives invoke "right action." Instead, they illustrate the intricate and awkward situations that typify classroom practices and seek to convert theory into practice. Thirdly, the complexity of the narratives had to provide for multiple perspectives and levels of self-analysis. What can the teacher expect when reflecting on the complex process of teaching through the self- analysis of narratives? Classroom-based narratives help avoid over- generalizing from either principles or prior situations learned.

CASES

Case Number One: Teacher: Mr. J.

In an at-risk community such as the one I work in, it seems common to have an entire class performing below grade level. I have even had classes where there may have been two or three students at grade level. In the four years of working in this community, never have I had a student performing above grade level, not until this year. Being a professional means not having biases and treating all of your clients the same. After all, we work for the students and their parents don't we?

Looking over my cumulative records this summer I spotted something astonishing, a student that scored 2 years above grade level on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS). I was excited and ashamed at the same time. On one hand, this was a refreshing change. I began planning, in my head, all the enrichment activities that I wanted to do with her, as compared to the mundane ones for the other students in the class. How ashamed I felt after thinking about it, that my expectations of my students had sunk to an all time low. It is my duty to try and teach all of my students as though they are all above grade level, despite the fact that they are coming to me performing years below their assigned grade.

C. was just as I had imagined her. Extremely bright, pleasant and always smiling. It was like she enjoyed every moment of school. She breezed through the diagnostic assignments that I normally give my class on the first few days of the new school year. This was to give me a gauge for providing the types of lessons and pace to administer to my class. I was more impressed with the fact that she would take out library or trade books to read after each assignment was completed. For the first few weeks the entire grade level cycle teachers considered her a golden girl. She was a breath of fresh air in a school that seemed to be suffocating.

After further review of her records, I noticed that the previous year was her first in this school system. She had come from a northwestern suburb. I found this odd, a student moving from a middle class community to a community with a 99% poverty rate, but, I left that alone. It was not my business. For some reason, I wanted to meet this girl's parents. I could not wait for the meet and greet night at our school.

That night finally arrived and I became anxious. I wondered how I would spot them. I didn't bother to find out if C. was living with both parents or one. I assumed that she lived with both, coming from her previous background. I wondered if either of her parents or even both were light skinned. C. was extremely light with long dark straight hair. She could have been a product of an interracial couple I thought, but I couldn't imagine a white person living in the community where our school is located. The night was about over, and only a few parents came in. I didn't remember seeing any couples, interracial or otherwise. I didn't discuss grades until I was sure of whose parents I was speaking to, unless they identified themselves as such. Sometimes the child and parent would have different sir names, so I really wouldn't know.

Just when time was about up, a parent that I knew for her volunteer work in the school came in. I thought it was strange that Mrs. J. would come to see me. I would always see her with a smaller child. But because we have a large population of extended families in our community, I figured she was there for a niece or nephew. I remembered that she was an aunt to a former student of mine who just so happened to have a younger sister in one of my science classes. I asked Mrs. J. to make sure her child studied at home for at least 30 minutes each evening. She had the strangest look on her face. I can remember it as if it was yesterday. She said, " I will tell her mom, but I'm here for C." Now Ms. Jones is extremely polite and cooperative. She is helpful and excellent with the kids I've seen her involved with, but I would have never guessed that she was C's mother. That night she apologized for her husband not being there, and stated that he was anxious to meet me. She said C. always talked about this really cool, young, black male teacher.

I learned two things in my young assuming career as a teacher. (1) Never judge a book by its cover. Just because families are living in an impoverished community doesn't mean that they are not good, decent people, who care about how well their children do in school. And (2), every child that I encounter, whether rich or poor, black or white, good or bad, single parent or otherwise, deserves to be treated and educated as if his or her ITBS scores were 10.0. I would like to apologize to everyone that I made feel less than that.

Case Number Two: Teacher: Ms. B.

It's my first day with a new class in a new school. Lots of first! A little apprehension had set in. I've heard rumor that this is the class from the hot spot and you know where that is! I was in my room preparing for my students when I was visited by my new colleagues. They greeted me warmly and then offered me their sincere condolences, adding that if there was anything they could do, please don't hesitate to ask. They entered one by one, each with the same words of wisdom and sympathy. As I sat between visitors, I really began to wonder just what type of class was on the way. As I sat, lost in my thoughts, a male teacher entered my room, introduced himself, and welcomed me to the school. He began telling me all about the students in my class individually. I wondered to myself how he knew so much about my class, but decided not to ask, but just listen to what he had to say. His final words to me were to be very careful of M. who had a reputation that preceded him. He ended our conversation by sharing with me that this had been his class and when he discovered there was a new teacher coming, he asked for a different class - one with fewer problems because after all, he needed to make his life as easy as possible. I thought, man, what a guy! Talk about looking out for your fellow colleague!

Well the great moment of anticipation had finally arrived. The bell rang and the students entered the building. I stood on my post outside my door and greeted the students as they arrived. I didn't get much of a response, but continued my greetings anyway. The tardy bell rang and the time had come for me to be alone with my little darlings. I entered the room and all the students were huddled in a corner engrossed in deep conversation, which I later learned was a meeting to discuss how they were going to get rid of me. I told them to take their seats and I began to take attendance. Much to my surprise, everyone was absent, but yet, there were twenty-nine students in front of me. Well, this meant that I would have to go into my survival bag and solve this mess. I rang the office and asked if someone could cover my class so that I could go to the phone and call twenty-nine parents because their children had not reported to school. The principal came and asked what was going on. I told him the story, he looked at me as if I had lost my mind, but decided to go along with my plan. Just as I gathered my attendance book, purse, and note pad, my students decided I was not joking. They began to fess up and put all the blame on M., it had been his idea and he had threatened anyone who would not go along with the plan. The principal removed M. to speak with him about his behavior. I took attendance again, and needless to say everyone was in attendance except M. because he was still with the principal. The rest of the day went along without incident, even though the atmosphere was a little strained because the students didn't know just how far they could go with me and their illustrious leader had been temporarily silenced. They did their assignments reluctantly and without substance. We made it through the first day without any further disturbances.

We began the second day of class on a different note. M. wasn't there and the students did not know what to do, other than what I asked them to do. Well that moment of bliss lasted about an hour until you know who arrived. I asked him if he had a note for being late and of course his response was no. I continued my inquiry about why he was late. He finally told me that his mother had sent him to the store and that she didn't know how to write, therefore, he didn't have a note. I didn't want to seem uncompassionate, but had the gut feeling that he hadn't told me the truth. Of course while M. was telling me this story, his partners in crime were laughing uncontrollably, which was a very accurate clue that he was lying. I decided to follow my hunch and call M.'s mother on my prep period. Fortunately, I was able to reach her and tell her what had transpired. She was shocked and wanted to assist me anyway she could. We decided on an action plan that wouldn't involve her just yet.

M. also had a reputation for having sticky fingers. I decided that it was time to take care of this situation once and for all. I allowed M. to continue his charade a couple of more days to make sure he was the only leader of the pack. When I decided that it had gone far enough, I put my plan in motion. I had been taking my purse with me at all times because I had no locking cabinets. I overheard the girls talking about a plan the boys were making for my purse, so I decided to make a plan of my own for my belongings, namely, my purse. I began breaking M.'s strong hold apart by emphasizing how each student was an individual and had to be responsible for his/her own actions. We began talking about what each student needed for success in today's world and what role they anticipated playing in the big picture. M. had very little to add, but made mental as well as verbal notes about how his classmates were becoming wimps. My plan was beginning to work, but the main player had not claimed his part. I knew that it would be necessary to do something that involved him without the help of his crew, an involvement that would make him accountable to me.

One day, I was called to the office. I found this to be the perfect opportunity to work my plan. I told the class that I needed to go to the office and wanted everyone to continue their work. I then added that I was putting M. in charge of my purse. I pulled him aside and informed him that if anything was missing from my purse, I was holding him personally responsible. He was reluctant in the beginning, but when he discovered I was serious, his attitude changed. I left the room, but stood outside of the door momentarily. I heard M. say that nobody was going to bother my purse. A few of the boys told him that they were on their way over to my purse and that he couldn't stop all of them. He retorted very heroically that he sure couldn't stop them all, but that he intended to do whatever it took to do the job I had given him. I gave them a few more minutes to debate their dilemma and work out their differences. Finally everyone took their seats and continued their assignments quietly. When I entered the room, everything was quiet, but more important, everyone wanted to work. From that moment on, the class from hell had settled and were a total surprise to everyone, even me.

About three years ago, M. came to see me and gave me an update on his life. He now lives in Michigan, works for a radio station and has returned to school, pursuing a career in communications. He had one child and a live in girlfriend that he intended to marry when his career got off the ground. I haven't spoken to him since, but can only hope that his success continues. My worst terror became my best student as well as someone that looked out for me at all times.

In reflecting on how I felt about my fellow-colleagues regarding the help and support I did NOT get; how I handled M., and how I was able to succeed to the point that I did because of support from the parents of those students, I can pinpoint how these events helped to shape me as a teacher. I never allow a new teacher to come into our school without offering any kind of support, materials, and supplies I can provide. I have a deep appreciation for parents, although others complain about the lack of parental involvement; and most important, my students have taught me that I should not give up on anyone; they are savable if we just take the time to let them know we care and expect better things from them, many times, more than they expect from themselves.

Case Number Three: Teacher: Ms. F.

With the pressures of probation and restructuring in our system, the Board has been pushing teaching strategies for standardized testing. We have been using Scoring High and IGAP Coaching. Teachers are stressed and students burned out. There was a focus on inferences and summarizing. Data interpretation was forced and then reinforced. Analyzing and evaluating were emphasized and reemphasized. Everyone was ready. We were anxious and excited waiting for the big day. The day came and went and a sense of calm and relief came over the city.

When the scores came back, there was not the significant change I expected. There was an average gain of one year in both math and reading. I had my students take a criterion-reference test as part of the probationary immediate action plan. The students' scores had increased 2-3 percentage points from those at the beginning of the year. How truly discouraged I was. To think, after all of this work, and no real gain! I decided to scrap the basal reader, the testing manuals, and anything else mandated by the probation managers.

By accident (or fate), I stumbled upon Walter Dean Myers' Somewhere in the Darkness. How refreshing it was to read fiction with events closely related to my own life and culture. Knowing that most of my students have similar backgrounds, I had a brilliant idea. I would introduce Jimmy (the main character) as a real person, experiencing real problems as an adolescent. He would come from a single family household, with a father in prison. He would live in the ghetto and dislike school. My students were so intrigued that they begin asking higher order thinking questions. I then gave them an excerpt with a cliff hanger as an ending. I would ask them suppose "ifs," how "woulds" and "what abouts." They ate it for lunch! Each day craving for another episode of "our friend Jimmy."

The low achieving students never participated so much. The higher achieving students would read volumes a day. Instead of dreading instructional reading, they anticipated the next day's lesson. How silly could "we" have been to teach reading strategies out of context! In this divine way, it was revealed to me that personal experience coupled with interest and reading strategies is the best way to increase maximum achievement in reading. Not drill and practice.

CONCLUSION

In this study three kinds of influences defined the environment in which classroom-based narratives dominated the scenario. The first of those influences were extrinsic to the teaching moment in which the classroom situation occurred. The teachers in this study were required to keep daily journals of events in their classrooms. This extrinsic force stimulated the identification, revision, and analysis of a distinctive instructional or non-instructional dilemma emerging during the learning process.

Intrinsic or internal factors made up the second set of influences and included features and characteristics inherent to the situation. For example, if an incident occurred, what should be the teacher's action or reaction, and what could or would be the most appropriate strategy to handle it? In general, the emerging affair may be solved depending on the sophistication and experience of the practitioner. The intrinsic influences may or may not be acknowledged and addressed unless the teacher is determined to find "soup for his or her soul." The intrinsic role of a teacher calls for reflections, deliberations, and judgements about his or her own teaching delivery model. Since there is no single approach to teaching and learning [Merseth, 1997], classroom-base narratives can stimulate individual study and reflection as well as offer a springboard for problem solving. In essence, classroom-based narratives may produce thoughtful strategies and effective teaching action plans.

Teachers also responded to a third influence which was compiled by their own set of core beliefs, values, personal philosophies, cultural assumptions, creeds, and doctrines about education. Whether an individual values lectures as a method of instruction over cooperative learning strategies, or monolingual education over bilingual education, these factors will significantly influence deliberation, analysis, self-reflection, and resulting actions.

The classroom-based narratives allowed the teachers to take both a subjective and objective look at themselves and their instructional practices. Through these narratives, they were able to question, examine, and challenge themselves regarding the best recurring practices that combined a recognition and analysis of the extrinsic and intrinsic factors that influenced the learning environment of their classrooms. The self reflections and writing of classroom-based narratives helped these teachers to realize the act of teaching involves much more than the mind; it involves the very essence of what it means to care, love, and nurture the children who come to school each day, with the hope that today will be better than the day before.

As Argyris stated, the advantages of the case study method is that they are an enjoyable way to motivate teachers to learn about teaching and learning[Argyris, 1986]; this method results in active rather than passive learning and requires student participation [Argyris, 1980]; it improves communication skills; and it develops group thinking skills and encourages consensus [Argyris, 1980].

The teachers in this study exhibited all of the tenets stated by Argyris, in addition, they discovered that when they thought and taught with their minds and hearts, the benefits and new learnings for the students and themselves were immeasurable.

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TOWARDS IMPROVING COMPUTER EDUCATION IN THE DEVELOPING WORLD: MODELS FOR TRAINING THE TRAINERS

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Abstract

This paper feels that the various levels of computer usage in developed countries and developing countries are so drastically different to an extent that many developing countries can almost be described as "computer illiterate nations." It is recognized that some efforts had been made by the universities, polytechnics and other computer institutes (in these countries) at both intermediate and high (or professional) levels. However, these efforts had not been extended to the junior or grassroot level. It is, therefore, not surprising that the efforts appeared to have permeated only to the business sector, with very little effect on the larger society. Some of the factors responsible for this apathy are: lack of awareness by the society; ineffective training programs for the society; inadequate infrastructures in the society; and wrong organizational arrangements within the system.

This paper is perhaps more pertinent to some parts of the developing world than others, because of differentials in levels of literacy and computer usage. All the same, the central theme of aiming at improving the effectiveness of the technology in the societies holds quite strongly. The objective of this paper is therefore to present a model that would assist in ensuring that appropriately trained teachers and trainers of computer education are available locally.

Key Words: Computer Literacy, Awareness, Trainings, Infrastructures, Trainers, International cooperation.

INTRODUCTION

THE GENERAL SITUATION

Some efforts had been made by universities, polytechnics and other computer agencies in the developing world to produce computer personnel at both intermediate and high (or professional) levels. However, these efforts had not been extended to the junior or grassroot level. It is, therefore, not surprising that the efforts appeared to have permeated mainly (and probably, only) to the business sector, with very little effect on the larger society .... (Bajah & Olutimayin, 1989) . Some of the factors responsible for this situation are: lack of (enough) awareness by the society; inefficient training programs for the society; inadequate infrastructures in the society; and, wrong organizational arrangements within the system.

These factors can be linked to the fact that many parts of the developing world, in varying degrees, appear not to have been good disciples of the western doctrine of " Catch Them Young." The author believes that these countries would have passed their present stages of computer literacy if they had introduced basic computer courses at educational levels below the universities and polytechnics.

OBSERVATIONS IN SOME OF THE REGIONS

In an interview in 1989 (by the author) with the then Minister of Education for Nigeria, Professor Jubril Aminu, on why computer literacy had not been achieved in the West African sub-region, the Minister indicated that some of the problems they were encountering in their effort to provide early computer education for some gifted pupils in some selected secondary schools were: lack of qualified teachers; inadequate classroom facilities; over-crowded school time-table; shortage of textbooks and audiovisual materials; and inadequate awareness by the parent, such that would notch them to make contributions to the scheme.

In Botswana (Southern Africa), all the Computer Science lecturers at the University from 1991 to 1994 were foreigners; in 1995, there was a local with a Masters degree. At the Institute of Accountancy and Commerce of that country (BIAC), only the HOD and one other junior lecturer were locals - the rest were foreigners. The stories were basically the same in Zimbabwe, Malawi, Swaziland, Namibia, etc. (Univ. of Botswana, 1995).

At the University of the South Pacific in Fiji (the only University serving the whole realm of the South Pacific), there is only one local at the levels of senior lecturer and above. At the Computer Center of the university, the top posts one held by foreigners. (University Calendar, 1995 - 1998). At the Fiji Institute of Technology, the story is slightly better, perhaps because the level of graduation at the Institute is Diploma and Certificates. In the business sector, only functions of firms owned/run by foreigners are adequately computerized, and then again, the top posts are held by foreigners.

Moving to the Middle - East, one would similarly observe that most of the positions of full Professors and Associate Professors of Computer Science are held by foreigners. It is only at the Assistant Professor's level that the institutions have locals. These situations are reflected in the numerous, frequent, and on-going advertisements in foreign papers for these positions.

There are, therefore, needs to address these issues to arrest, or at least reduce, the perpetual dependence of these nations on foreign personnel. One is not suggesting that appointments of foreigners should be stopped; the advocacy is to encourage the production of adequately trained local personnel to provide opportunities for them to occupy positions of decision making, thus providing some sense of national pride.

PERCEIVED SOLUTIONS

It is common-place practice for some developing countries to depend (almost) completely on foreign governmental supports and international aids and cooperation in their projects, which include training their nationals abroad (Olutimayin, 1988). This may be alright for simple one-off things. But for purposes of continuity and self-reliance, this practice would not be encouraged. Rather, because these programs are aimed at grassroot levels, the paper would encourage the local training of local materials as teachers and trainers. This does not preclude international aids. The paper, therefore, aims at evolving some options for the production (and/or training) of these teachers and trainers for computer education at the junior and intermediate levels, suggesting that training strategies should ensure instructional flexibility, as content of training courses will vary according to a country's: economic content; development level; the relationship between education, culture and national development strategies; learning processes; and the differing objectives of computer use.

OUICK DISCUSSION

Training is a problem-solving activity, and one of the most critical issues in today's data processing. Properly handled, training can increase morale and improve productivity. Poorly handled, it is a waste of time and money, and a demoralizing influence on trainees, at any level. Given the generalized ivory tower computer education many institutions dish out, there is a critical need for both real-world and problem-solving training on newly hired graduates. In real-world computing training can make major software or hardware conversions easy tasks.(Uwah, 1989).

Trainings need to be coordinated with career development, when trainees begin to see a real future with the profession, and turnover is reduced. Proper training programs in productivity techniques can reduce workloads, logjams, and stress (Dight, 1984) The benefits of effective training are so great that the training function can pay for itself. Dennis Yankee (1989), the Training Officer with South Trust Corp; Birmingham, Ala., says "If 1, as a trainer, don't save my company two to three times my salary in a year, then I don't feel I've done my job." It is therefore very unfortunate to observe some training programs that are under staffed, under budgeted and with under qualified staff. Such training programs are ineffective, their trainers are not respected, and in some cases, training sessions have become just forums for social discussions.

Trainings should no longer just be for scheduling classes and checking to see if everyone attends. In progressive situation, training should be an integral part of planning and development process for the entire educational system. These expectations/objectives can be achieved when there are good training programs with good resources, i.e. funds, proper staff (in the qualitative and quantitative sense), and adequate management or governmental support.

TYPES AND LEVELS OF TRAININIGS REQUIRED

In order to produce the much needed trained personnel for effective utilization of computers and other facilities offered by the technology, these trainings should be capable of developing individuals who will investigate innovation, in both software development and hardware designs. The trainings should encourage individual creativity, perceptivity, initiative and receptivity to new ideas at all levels. Gladly enough, this was one of the aims of the new experiment in West Africa, even at the Junior level.
Trainings offered at the universities and other academic institutions should not be wholly theoretical but should be backed up by a lot of projects and other practical exercises.

Training by vendors, training schools of individual industries, and other private institutes should also focus on producing computer personnel at both intermediate and professional levels.

All these are aimed at producing personnel that can themselves be effectively turned into trainers/teachers at future dates.

TEACHERS VS TRAINERS

A teacher imparts knowledge (and a times skill) through instructions or lessons; he operates in a formal way of lectures, giving instructions that are theoretical in nature; he can be described as one who "sells ideas." Whereas, a trainer is that personnel that brings a candidate to a desired standard of efficiency, obedience, etc. by instructions and practice, (Shone, 1974). The emphasis in a trainer's job is the practical side of the instructions, aimed at efficiency. A trainer is technique oriented, solution/result oriented, and strives to impart these orientations to the trainees.

In some situations, however, one can have a teacher and a trainer in the same person; for instance, university and polytechnic lecturers who teach professional courses (engineering, banking, computer sciences, etc) can be regarded as trainers, even though they are basically teachers. These people produce graduates with emphasis on the practical side of the disciplines.

In our context, what makes the difference is the program(s) the individuals have gone through, and their orientations thereafter. A trained teacher is expected to have gone through some programs in the teaching profession, e.g. a bachelor's degree, a diploma or a certificate in education. To qualify to be a computer teacher he is, in addition, expected to have some basic computer training. Alternatively, he is expected to be a graduate of computer science, or a data processing practitioner, or a computer scientist, or a researcher with some qualifications in education (a certificate or diploma), or some orientation courses that would enhance or improve his ability to impart the knowledge to the students.

In addition to these, a trainer is expected to have undergone trainer's courses aimed at increasing his creativity. These demands and expectations have raised the question " How do we get these people?."

APPROACHES TO PRODUCING TEACHERS AND TRAINERS (See Table 1)

Option A

This option has 3 phases, producing a trained teacher in phase I of Fig. 1. In phase II this 'teacher' is taken through some computer courses to acquire the necessary technical knowledge and skill. Some of the courses that may be approved for this purpose are:

- a university degree or diploma or a certificate course in computer studies (full time)
- special courses (e.g. sandwich) run in-house and taught by august lecturers
- company-specific or industry-based or business-oriented trainings; this is aimed at producing specialists in-specific (and important) areas, e.g. computer architecture and software development.

Phase III takes the computer teacher through courses for trainers to satisfy the purpose of helping people do their jobs (more) effectively. These courses are meant to transit the teacher from an academia or educator (who is used to teaching from textbook) to a career trainer. Such courses would involve skill development, talent discovery, planning and managing educational resources, career development, psychology, human and industrial relations. The courses would also provide for keeping abreast of technical, industrial and other professional developments through industrial visits, conferences, seminars and publications.

Option B

This is similar to option A except for phase sequencing. In this option phases I and II of option A are interchanged, but Phase III retains its position as in option A. The other (major) difference between options A and B is that while option A lays more emphasis on teacher education, option B concentrates on computer science and data processing education.

Option C

This is a two-in-one exercise which seeks to combine phases I and II of options A and B by producing graduates of two disciplines. Special curricula are designed to produce graduates with education background and computer background. These graduates are then taken through trainers' courses as in phase III of options A and B.

Option D

While the previous options deal with (fresh) college graduates, option D draws its candidates from industries and other outside organizations, e.g. practitioners with wealth of experience and/or retired professionals. These are taken through training orientation courses to enable them adapt to the 'classroom environment'. It is possible they have been involved in some training exercises (e.g. lecturers). The orientation courses would then just seek to turn them into career trainers. In a senses, this special exercise may appear to be a combination of phases II and III of option B. Even if it happens to be so in some situations, the rigor of retraining and/or orientation in this option would be much less than the training in option B.

FURTHER DISCUSSION

Options A and B are very similar both in content and duration. Because school teachers (and others) are entering data processing workforce in droves, and because people with education background are easy to find, it may appear that option A is the most practicable, and therefore many of the school teachers may be favored for training purposes solely on the basis of that background. Although an understanding of educational design, curriculum development, and the learning process is very valuable, it does not necessarily make good trainers. Therefore, the likely tendency to give these jobs to people with education background should not be encouraged beyond reasonable limits, because education is considerably different from training. As opined earlier the purpose of training is to help people do their jobs effectively, and for that purpose, it is more important that you know what the job is, than to know how to educate someone.

So, a data processing background makes a lot more sense than an education background. (Kaplinsky, 1 984). And, therefore, in a situation where personnel are available option B would be preferred to option A for purposes of effectiveness.

Option C may be made to take less time than options A and B. However, the curricula may have to be such that would make the contents for both education and computer much less than the individual contents of education and computer science. This situation may invariably restrict such graduates to the classroom, and any attempt in some future dates to turn them into computer professionals may require greater efforts than what obtains in option A.

In option D, because of the caliber (and quality) of those involved, there is a very high chance of success; this option would most likely be very effective for purposes of training trainers. However, if the objective is only to produce teachers for junior and intermediate levels, this option may not be directly applicable, except where they are turned into and involved as university lecturers (i.e. high or professional level) to help produce college graduates of computer science and data processing.

CONCLUSION

The paper has highlighted some qualifications expected of computer teachers and the attributes of a trainer. It has also suggested some approaches to the production (or training) of these personnel for computer education at the junior and intermediate levels.

WHICH APPROACH? (See Table 1)

The option employed would be determined by the objectives and prevailing circumstances, e.g. availability of adequate funds, urgency of the program, cooperations of the management (or government) etc. If the objective is solely to produce teachers, then Option C would be more favored than Option A or Option B, in that order. If the objective is to produce trainers, then Option D might be more applicable than Option B, or Option A, or Option C, in that order. However, if the exercise projects into the future and it is planned that the teachers should form a buffer for producing computer professionals (i.e. practitioners) at future dates, then Option B is likely to achieve this objective better than Option A, or Option C, in that order. For practical training purposes, Option D is more likely to be more effective than others, if there are no problems of availability of the type of personnel and how to attract them. But these problems exits. The reality therefore is that Option D may be out of the reach of most developing countries now and may be so for years to come.

For the very immediate (i.e. short-ten-n) needs of the developing world, Option C may not be practicable because of time (factor) to re-design the curriculum. In this situation, Option A would therefore be recommended rather than Option B because finding people with education background would be less difficult than finding people with data processing background. For medium-term planning, Option C would be more practicable, even then Option B may be more beneficial than Option C, depending on the objectives.

If these rankings (or positions) are quantified by assigning numerical values (or points) to them, i.e. 1st position earns 4 points; 2nd position 3 points, 3rd position 2 points, 4th position 1 point, the result would be as shown in Table 3. If the variables affect the situations equally (i.e. if they have equal weightings in the decision mechanism) it would appear that Option C is the most beneficial to most developing countries. Unfortunately, as is in the world of entrepreneurs or decision-making exercises, the variables vary in value according to varying circumstances, and therefore, a cut-and-dried recommendation can not be made based only on the totaled-points. However, they do give an indication of what directions the policies for producing teachers and trainers should go. And since there are no other 'clearer' or more definite ways of assessing the Options, perhaps the best thing would be to start thinking of developing curricula that would provide computer education along with teaching education. The alternative is to encourage (young) computer graduates to go in for post- graduate training in Education, i.e. Option B. This is equally likely to be effective. This practice had already started in Nigeria.

PROBLEMS AND INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

Whichever option is employed, certain problems exist. Top of these problems is monetary concerns. Funding can be (as indeed it is always) a major problem in developing countries. This is where international cooperation is required and essential. Developed countries, multinational corporations and other international bodies and agencies can assist (needy parts of these nations) in these programs by providing money, materials (e.g. textbooks, machines, and audio-visual materials), and even some personnel, as well as by providing methods and know-how through conferences, seminars and exchange visits. Some of these aids may need to be channeled through the government of the recipient country, depending on existing relationships between the two parties.

The second problem relates to resistance from personnel that are not involved in training programs. This is because dp personnel in general and dp trainers in particular tend to be paid more than other personnel, even more than general trainers, which can (as it again does) put a strain on relation inside the education system. Once more, international bodies and agencies can arrest the situation if they provide the personnel and are responsible for their remunerations, through technical aid schemes, which are capable of strengthening international cooperations.

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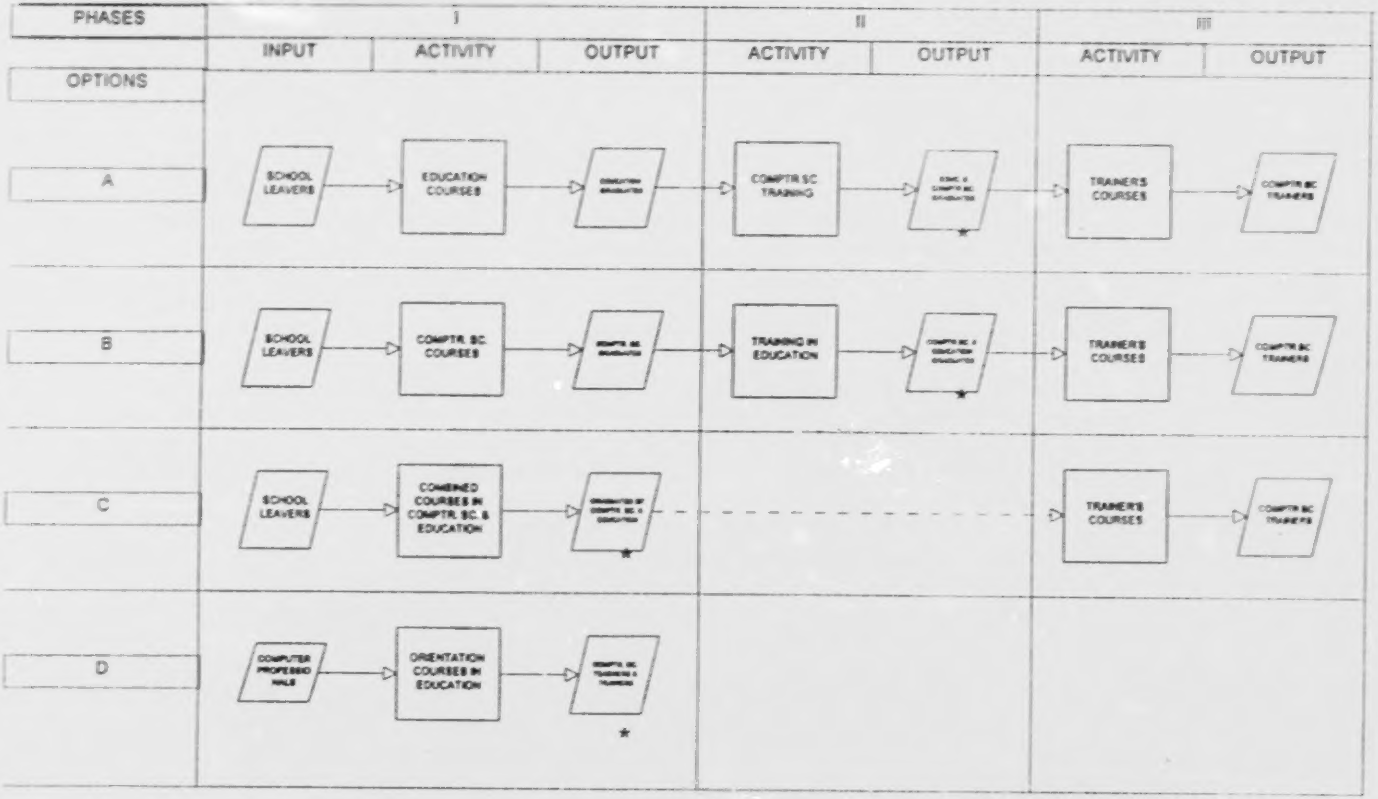

TABLE 1

PHASES	I			II		III	
OPTIONS	INPUT	ACTIVITY	OUTPUT	ACTIVITY	OUTPUT	ACTIVITY	OUTPUT
A	SCHOOL LEAVERS	EDUCATION COURSES	EDUCATION GRADUATES	COMPTR SC TRAINING	EDUC. & COMPTR SC GRADUATES *	TRAINERS COURSES	COMPTR SC TRAINERS
B	SCHOOL LEAVERS	COMPTR. SC. COURSES	COMPTR. SC. GRADUATES	TRAINING IN EDUCATION	COMPTR. SC. & EDUCATION GRADUATES *	TRAINER'S COURSES	COMPTR SC TRAINERS
C	SCHOOL LEAVERS	COMBINED COURSES IN COMPTR. SC. & EDUCATION	GRADUATES OF COMPTR. SC. & EDUCATION *			TRAINER'S COURSES	COMPTR SC TRAINERS
D	COMPUTER PROFESSIONALS	ORIENTATION COURSES IN EDUCATION	COMPTR. SC. TEACHERS & TRAINERS *				

* COMPTR SC. TEACHERS

TABLE 2

FACTORS → RANKING ↓	Finding People into the Program (VAR 1)	Relative ease Program Execution (VAR 2)	URGENCY OF PROGRAM OBJECTIVES			To Produce Teachers (VAR 6)	To Produce Trainers (VAR 7)	To develop a Buffer for DP Personnel (VAR 8)	Likelihood of Effectiveness (VAR 9)	Prevention of Staff Turnover (VAR 10)
			Short-term (VAR 3)	Medium-term (VAR 4)	Long-term (VAR 5)					
1st	A	D	A	C	C/D	C	D	B	C	D
2nd	C	C	A	B		A	B	A	D	A
3rd	B	B	B		A/B	B	A	C	B/A	B
4th	D	A	C			*D	C	*D		C

* Not directly applicable

* Not applicable

Ranking the Options by Certain Considerations

TABLE 3

VAR → OPTION ↓	VAR 1	VAR 2	VAR 3	VAR 4	VAR 5	VAR 6	VAR 7	VAR 8	VAR 9	VAR 10	TOTAL POINTS
A	4	1	4		3	3	2	3	2	3	25
B	4	2	3	3	3	2	3	4	2	2	26
C	3	3	1	4	4	4	1	2	4	1	27
D	1	4	2		4		4		3	4	22

Weighting the Variables

NEURAL NETWORKS, SOCIOECONOMIC PERFORMANCE, INFORMATION SYSTEMS, ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE

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Abstract

This article presents both a theoretical and practical approach to the management of organizations. The contribution of new discoveries in cognitive neuro-psychology combined with on-site experimentation in French businesses, allows for the construction of an innovative model of biomanagerial management. The objective being the explication and improvement of these organizations. The presentation of these instruments facilitates the comprehension and understanding of the characteristic mechanics of the functioning of these organizations. These instruments also open the new path of the management of tomorrow, and the reduction of incertitude for all organizations that wish to evolve and adapt to the waves of change in technology.

INTRODUCTION

In light of recent developments in information and communications technology (SIMON, 1986), the representation and organization of companies are being modified. The general use of information and specifically software tools, as the base of expert systems, is specializing in decision making (REIX, 1995). The neuro-approach that is progressively growing in all areas is due to several developments over the last few years. The object of our present research concerns a neural network approach to the information systems of organizations, seeking increased performance. The work carried out in diverse fields has permitted us to find solutions to this issue. In this report we will address the conditions of the conception of a neural network, as well as it's adaption to organizations. We will also address the elaboration of the premises of an intelligent system in the optical form of neural representation of information systems. A previous presentation of the advances in this field will permit to situate it as well as to show the educational interests in terms of the strategical management.

THE CONDITIONS OF THE CONCEPTION OF A NEURAL NETWORK, AND IT'S ADAPTION TO ORGANIZATIONS

It is important to define the aspects that are relative to the structure (DESREUMAUX, 1992), the functioning, and the possible actions (SAVALL, 1995) of polymorphic organizations (MORGAN 1995, MINTZBERG 1982). We can therefore define strategic management as the collection of sense organs that serve to perceive the environment, receive information through management tools and strategic direction. These factors constitute a virtual brain in the organization, which will later be adapted. The socioeconomic diagnostic permits to adjust this perception in hopes of eventually mastering it.

Once the missions of the organization are defined, the information systems will take the relay and process all incoming information, both internal and external. This information comes from reports of the activities that take place in the heart of a socioeconomic approach. This socioeconomic approach reduces the malfunctions (physiostructure) that are produced from the interaction of structures (genostructure) and comportment (phénostructure) (S⇔C), that go along with current actions. In order to function properly, the approach uses reframing, regulation, and reparation with the protocol of permanent validation. This is in order to permit the appropriate structure/performance ratio of the living system (Biomanagerial System).

Recall that Socio-economic Biomanagement is defined as:

- the research of mechanisms that are vital to the organization:
    - experimental research: study of phenomenons and experimentation of effective techniques to appropriately implement integral quality (Managerial Engineering)
    - modelization of the Decision/Action process at a strategic and operational level (neuron information systems, self learning and holistic)
- progressive intervention, structured, evaluated, adapted to the biological rhythms of the organization, strong enough to publish an advancement of actions, but still compatible with the pulsations of life and the activities of the organization.
- the awakening and the revelation of resources and the social and economic potential accumulated in the organization by the implementation of strategic tools and it's accompaniment throughout the procedure.

The biomanagerial system is registered as a systematic approach and integrates the three fundamental factors (W (work), K (capital) and «r» (residual)) in a formal construction of transdisciplinary intentions and multi dimensions. This system serves as an attempt to increase the explanatory strength of the economical results observed in the heart of organizations. This construction is represented by functional levels that are stable and successive (the levels of the atom, the molecule, the macro molecule, of the cell, the tissue, the organ, etc ...) and realize in an intelligible fashion the complexity of the evolution of the universe. The structure of the organization in this hierarchy is coherent with that which it tries to represent. Therefore inserting the Biomanagerial System (BS) in the living environment by the use of a neural network that will govern it, is the base of human-economic management (metaphoric modeling of the human being for a behavior to his advantage, without neglecting the economic aspect, in order to direct a group of humans towards precise objectives), where the expression will transform the organization into a more reactive and high performance structure. The gap in performance between the desired functioning and the actual functioning in a socioeconomic approach (SAVALL), is nothing more than that which is represented by the gap between the operational objectives (that, we recall, comes from strategic objectives) and the achieved results from the operational duties. These operational duties are carried out by the workers, in the heart of the activities, and the defined missions are regulated by a central system (the principal of convergence of goals, DRUCKER), with functional reciprocity, constitutes the «danger» zone, the narrow passage between the complex system defined by J.L. LE MOIGNE and the complicated system that all good director knows. The biomanagerial system attempts to integrate this dimension because it is in the heart of cybernetic resources of the organization and it's environment. This taken in it's integrality and in full realization of the interactions that exist between the sections of this group (theory of systems, BERTALANFFY, BOULDING).

The BS, is therefore at the origin of the flow of informational knowledge, and by it's constructive nature, is stored. And if the informalion (vector of knowledge), so stated by H. LESCA can be the object of a topology (information of functioning (command and control); information of influence (synchronization); anticipation information (direction)), and it possesses different moments following J.L. LE MOIGNE, it is usually only utilized in its brute form by managers. It is necessary to represent reality in order to better understand. In effect, the scientific process which confronts theories in a critical fashion with facts, in a unceasing ballet between concrete observation and the construction of concepts to specify and modify. This is the only method that allows to have a more clear and efficient outlook of reality. The BS carries with it the simple paradigm, that of the epicenter of the universe and of all sciences, the human being. This is the modelization that we are experimenting.

The BS, as an information system, is a coherent collection of procedures and methods that supplies information sources that processes this information. The sensori-motors sensors supply and activate the processing system of information that is destined to the operating system that will realize the operational duties (obeying precise rules) and of the system of animation that defines the missions under the influence of an intelligent conception system that will anticipate the results and simulate the decisions, while realizing the key factors to success. This in order to define in a self-governing manner the rules of functioning of the model of direction of the organization. This by neuro-organizational learning, capable of reproducing the complex decision-making process (A. TURING, J.P. NADAL), delivers a valorizing information to the workers (following a hierarchy of simulation that directs the appropriate decision-making in terms with the current reality) or others information systems, for the accomplishment of a mission, the management of a resource or the preparation of the future. The BS is organically constituted of information processing models, automated or not, and of transport networks that structure the organization. The BS makes the connection between the information system itself and the organizational structure. Figure 1 clearly illustrates this systematic modelization.

THE ELABORATION OF THE PREMISES OF AN INTELLIGENT SYSTEM

The operational process of the Direction of information systems of an organization that aims to provide a performance and increased effectivity is detailed in several phases:

- The acquisition of languages,
- The diagnosis,
- The analyses or malfunctions (S⇔C),
- The modelization of tools,
- The choice of rules of functioning,
- Evaluation and control,
- The processing of malfunctions.

The social-economic explanatory variables (SAVALL, 1987) of the functioning of all organization, being the conditions and organization of work, the education and information of workers and the strategic application, the construction of a Neural System of Biomanagerial Management (NSBM) is elaborated following the information provided from the socioeconomic tools, in order to generate successive reports up to the final activity report, a true strategical direction chart. The simulation instrument obtained is presented in Figure 2.

EXAMPLE OF RESULTS OBTAINED FROM THE DIAGNOSIS OF AN ORGANIZATION (LARGE TERRITORIAL COLLECTIVE)

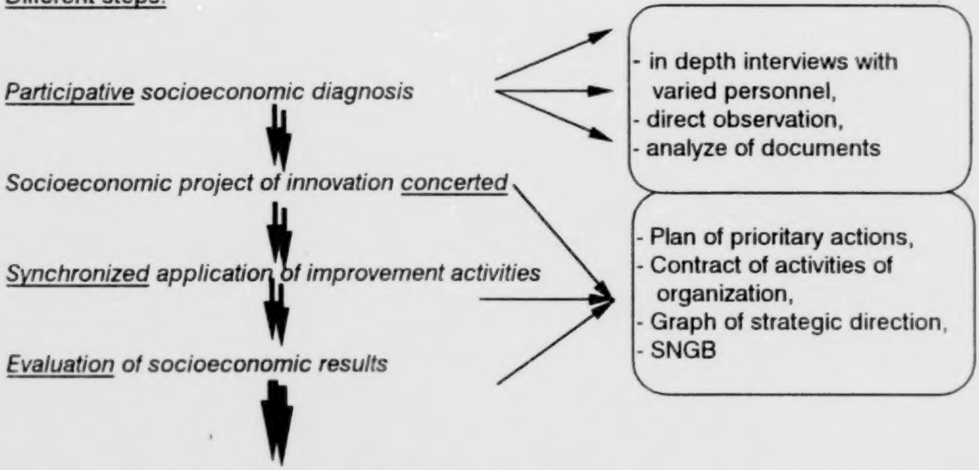
Diagnosis of Intervention

- A work organization that is reigned by bad delegation of duties and missions, a bad regulation of absenteeism, a lack of interest and autonomy in the work content, heavy constraints and rules of procedures, a poorly defined time management, and a lack of programming and rigor.
- A lack of communication-coordination-concertation because of a over important division of services, surcharge, ambiguity, incertitude, incoherence of the information-product ratio and a non possibility, inaccessibility, distortion, lack of interactivity between the information and the process, that damages proper circulation and transmission of information.
- An unknown strategy as well as methods and tools that are absent with a management little or not at all participative, stressing, a framing left to itself in an unadapted area.

Application Process

This is actually in the process of experimentation. Its description is a synthesis of the different enunciated phases.

Different steps:


Participative socioeconomic diagnosis
Socioeconomic project of innovation concerted
Synchronized application of improvement activities
Evaluation of socioeconomic results
- in depth interviews with varied personnel,
- direct observation,
- analyze of documents
- Plan of prioritary actions,
- Contract of activities of organization,
- Graph of strategic direction,
- SNGB

For a better understanding of the information, and it's flow by the organization of the structure, the animation of workers and the use of new technologies.

By modeling these different stages from a generator of rules (following figure), an area of simulation, that we can conceive an intelligent management system. It has to be able to respond to precise problem specifications, elaborated from concepts describing the variables, and the objectives desired related to the solutions for one part and the rules that permit to go from the information to one solution or another by an evolved and teachable mechanism. We realize that the expert systems are no longer satisfactory to respond to this sort of complexity, but on the other hand, the artificial neural network, modeled from the functioning of the elementary cells of the brain, the neurons, can bring a solution. This is the reason that we discuss of a neural system of intelligent biomanagerial management. The capacity of learning as *a double buckle* of a neural system, meaning that it is capable of learning to learn, therefore to auto regulate itself and make it intelligent. The «psychic» machine is made of information, rules and behaviors that permits to obtain results that pertain to the target organization. These are these results that will permit to help decision-making.

For example, an important reoccurring event bat we have observed: *maintain the flow of human resources in the organization.* In order to establish the rules of functioning of such an event, it is necessary before hand to determine the RULES that permit to conceive and control the procedures that correspond to the three perceptive levels that we determined in our research in our fields of study:

- at the operational level (1), constituting first the rules of collection for the indicatives. This deals with the establishment of a rigorous semantic of operational information, and to dispose of a databank of the models of the procedures. This will facilitate the realization of the indicatives that will be classified in a library, and where the particular meaning each one will be defined in a glossary.
- at the functional level (2), by establishing rules of relative decisions in the organization of services. These are the rules of the launching and the direction of operations, the functional rules.
- at the strategic level (3), by elaborating a thesaurus. This thesaurus will be charged with the indexing of all different levels structuring the strategic areas such as the measurement of indicatives, the Key Factors of Success and the strategic models of control.

After having defined the base that will determine the rules of conception and control of the procedures, all that will remain is the introduction of the rules of management of the analytical accounting by activity in order to start the motor of allocation of resources and obtain a controlled flow of human resources. This procedure is valid for all events related to the functioning of an organization.

FIGURE 1
DIAGRAM OF A NEURAL NETWORK ORGANIZATION (NEURAL MECHANISM)
B. S. (BIOMANAGERIAL SYSTEM) COMPOSED OF SENSORS (S)

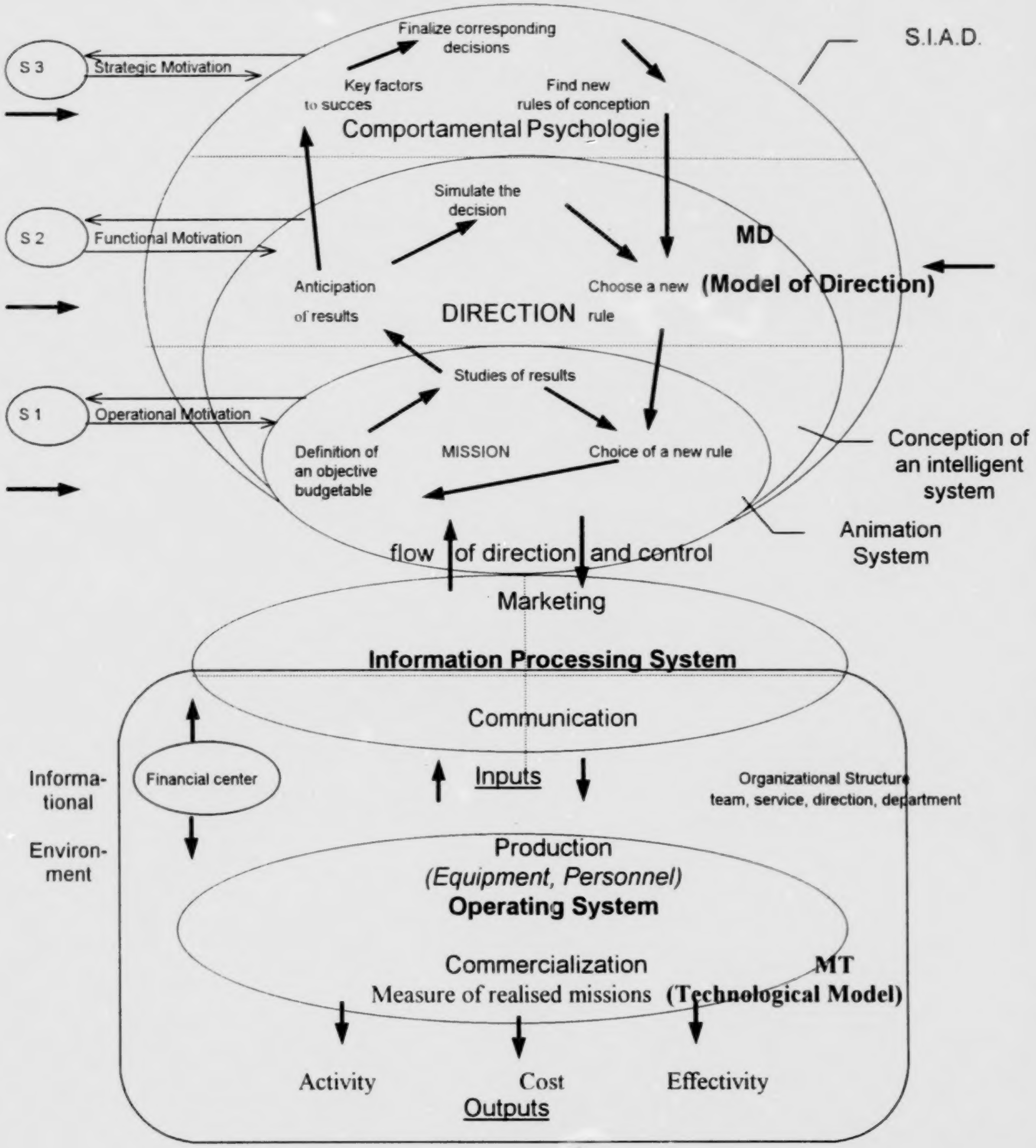
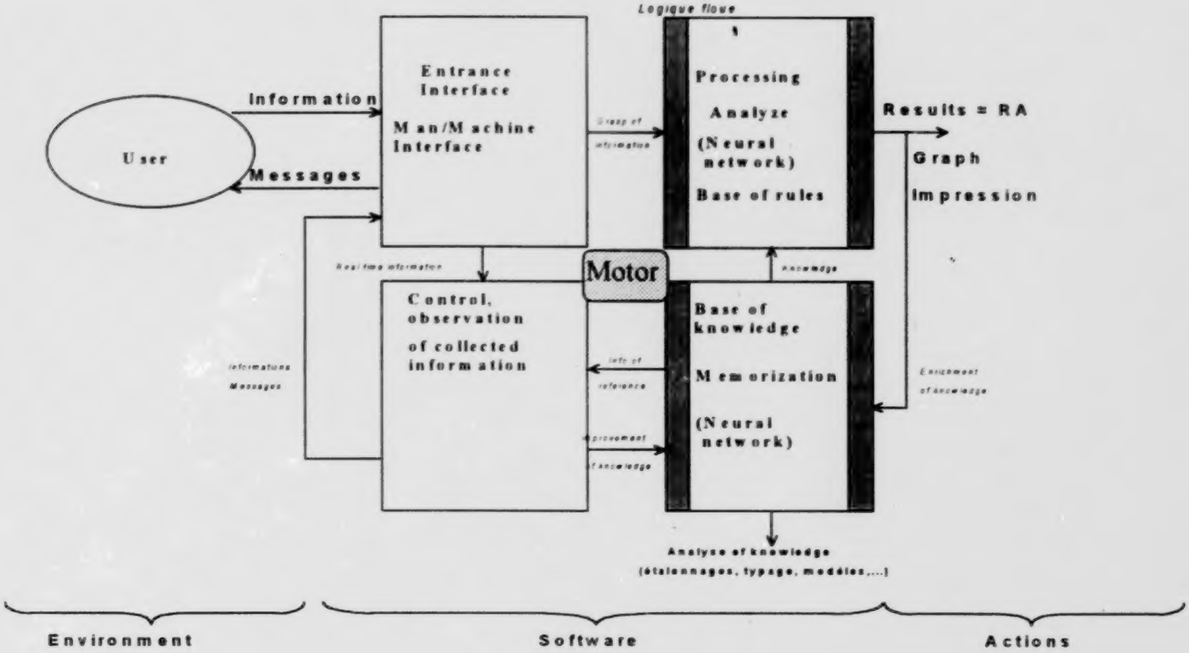

S.I.A.D.
S 3
Strategic Motivation
Finalize corresponding decisions
Key factors to succes
Find new rules of conception
Comportamental Psychologie
S 2
Functional Motivation
Simulate the decision
MD
(Model of Direction)
Anticipation of results
DIRECTION
Choose a new rule
S 1
Operational Motivation
Studies of results
Definition of an objective budgetable
MISSION
Choice of a new rule
Conception of an intelligent system
Animation System
flow of direction and control
Marketing
Information Processing System
Communication
Informational Environment
Financial center
Inputs
Organizational Structure team, service, direction, department
Production
(Equipment, Personnel)
Operating System
Commercialization
Measure of realised missions
MT
(Technological Model)
Activity
Cost
Effectivity
Outputs

Figure 2
NEURAL SYSTEM OF BIORNANAGERIAL MANAGEMENT (NSBM)


Logique floue
User
Information
Messages
Entrance Interface
Man/Machine Interface
Group of information
Processing
Analyze
(Neural network)
Base of rules
Results = RA
Graph
Impression
Real time information
Motor
Knowledge
Control, observation of collected information
Informations
Messages
Info of reference
Improvement of knowledge
Base of knowledge
Memorization
(Neural network)
Enrichment of knowledge
Analyse of knowledge
(étalonnages, typage, modèles,...)
Environment
Software
Actions

This instrument functions thanks to a neural motor that is intelligent, based on knowledge acquired from cognitive Neuropsychology (characteristic of raticular connections between neurons), and programmed into information language. The simutation obtained by this tool will permit the acquisition of the elements of the diagnosis shown in the section entitled *"Example of Results Obtained From the Diagnosis of an Organization (Large Territorial Colelctive)."*

CONCLUSION

Finally, we can resume the obtaining of global performance by the sum of the internal performance obtained by the anirnation of different interdependent activities and sources of competitive advantage of the organization (value chain, PORTER) of areas of action (Operational aspect) like Marketing, Information Systems, Management Control, Personnel Management, Accounting-Finance, Management of Production (Components) and of external performance on the environment, according to strategic indicators resulting from the conception of an intelligent system (Strategic aspect). This animation consists of developing the strategy, directing it, all while rneasuring and diagnosing actions. This is a task too large for one person, except if an intelligence is capable of acquiring, analyzing, modeling, choosing, evaluating, controlling, processing, stocking, and communicating all the information. The neural network that we construct, by its capacity of learning, its speed of processing and the possibility of working in several domains is the capability that it gives to bring an artificial intelligence and also decision-making capabilities that directors would like to adopt. It isn't quite that simple, the difficulty remains to make the neural network work in order to improve the performance of organizations. And without forgetting the words of SPINOZA «man judges things following the intuition of his brain» and that «the experience and reason are in agreement to establish that men think they are free because they have conscience of their actions and not of causes that determine them».

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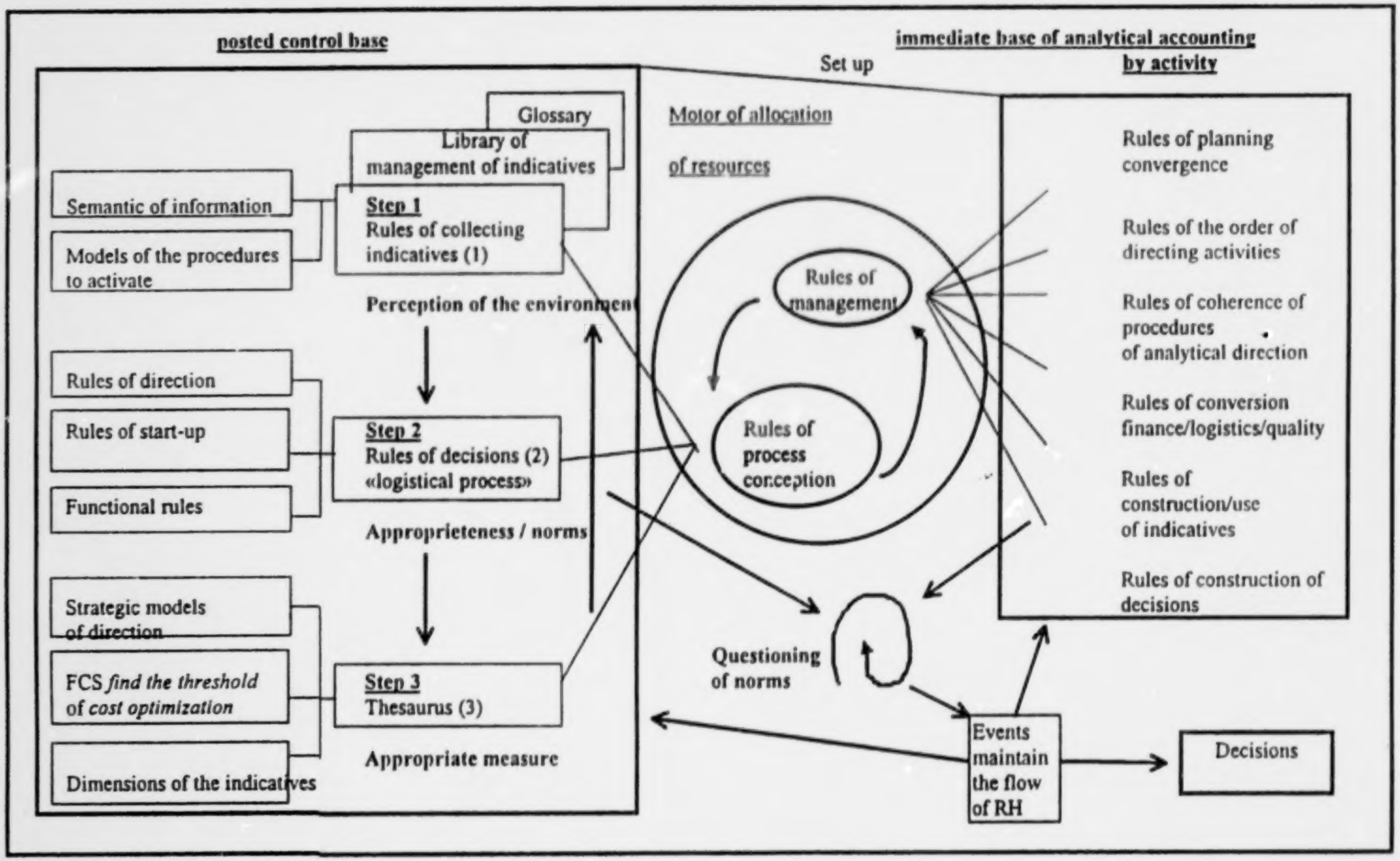
posted control base
immediate base of analytical accounting by activity
Set up
Glossary
Library of management of indicatives
Semantic of information
Models of the procedures to activate
Step 1
Rules of collecting indicatives (1)
Perception of the environment
Rules of direction
Rules of start-up
Functional rules
Step 2
Rules of decisions (2) «logistical process»
Appropriateness / norms
Strategic models of direction
FCS find the threshold of cost optimization
Dimensions of the indicatives
Step 3
Thesaurus (3)
Appropriate measure
Motor of allocation of resources
Rules of management
Rules of process conception
Questioning of norms
Events maintain the flow of RH
Decisions
Rules of planning convergence
Rules of the order of directing activities
Rules of coherence of procedures of analytical direction
Rules of conversion finance/logistics/quality
Rules of construction/use of indicatives
Rules of construction of decisions

FIGURE 3
GENERATOR OF RULES

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CHAPTER FIVE

THE INTERACTIVE MULTIMEDIA SIMULATION IN MANAGEMENT: AN ASSESSMENT OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

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Abstract

A recent development in multimedia technology presents an opportunity to evaluate a new interactive teaching method for experiential management education. Managing Customers for Profits, the subject of this research study, is a CD-ROM simulation from Harvard Business School Publishing that is a forerunner in a new generation of educational software. This study reports research on student reaction to the multimedia simulation, the relationship of simulation performance to student learning styles and other measures of student learning, and student reaction to a team course project which uses the simulation as the basis for writing marketing strategy plans and making classroom presentations.

INTRODUCTION

Business simulations have a long history of use in management education. [Burns and Gentry, 1992] [Hsu, 1989][Keys and Wolfe, 1990] Recent developments in computer and multimedia technology have resulted in management simulations that promise a new generation of pedagogical technology and exciting educational experiences for students. For the past several years The Harvard Business School, through its publishing operation, has been applying multimedia technology to develop interactive case studies and simulations for students, executive education, and managerial training. Managing Customers for Profits (MCFP), the focus of the research reported in this paper, is the second of the Harvard Business School Publishing series of interactive CD-ROM products. Available since 1996, the new Harvard simulation promises to be an intellectually stimulating and engaging complement to textbooks, articles, printed case studies and employment experience. [Teaching Methods, 1997]

The new generation of multimedia simulations is responsive to current trends in management education. In recent years, students have reacted favorably to educational methods that feature interactive teaching and experiential learning. Video and printed case studies as well as exercises using the World Wide Web and Internet have been popular with students who are interested in applying the knowledge they have learned in the classroom. [Lamont and Friedman, 1997]

The research reported here is part of an on-going investigation of the educational efficacy of various classroom teaching methods such as experiential case studies and interactive simulations. [Lamont, 1995, 1996, and 1997] It is focused on an evaluation of Harvard's new, interactive multimedia simulation for teaching marketing and management. The purposes are:

1. to evaluate Managing Customers for Profits from the perspective of student learning styles, academic achievement, intellectual involvement and its value in learning and applying marketing principles.

2. to compare the multimedia simulation to other interactive and traditional teaching methods.

SIMULATIONS IN MANAGEMENT

Management simulations create simplified business environments which serve as a laboratory for learning and applying theory. In academic settings, simulations provide students opportunities to make management decisions, see the results of decisions and learn the application of concepts. [Alpert, 1993] [Burns and Gentry, 1992] Two different types of business simulations have been used in management education over the past 40 years. Batch simulations, where decisions were submitted on punched cards or diskettes and interactive simulations where decisions were made at a computer terminal while students operated the simulation at the computer. [Burns and Gentry, 1992] The traditional batch simulations usually ran on main frame computers. They were powerful, but they were also passive. After making a set of decisions, the administrator ran the simulation and students waited for the results to be made available as printed output or on a terminal screen. Repetitions of the decision and output process enabled students to compress years of experience into several weeks of an academic term. However, there was little urgency for student interaction until the output was available and another set of decisions was being prepared. The new generation of interactive simulations, uses video technology and permits continuous play, so decisions are linked quickly to results and the learning experience can be accomplished in a much shorter period. Users quickly become an integral part of the simulation and come closer to the reality of managing a business. The new interactive simulations also enable the user to replay decisions during the simulation, thus encouraging experimentation and reinforcing the learning.

MANAGEMENT SIMULATIONS AND LEARNING

The contribution of simulations to management and marketing education have been widely studied. [Wellington and Faria, 1996] [Wolf and Chanin, 1993] However, support for educational effectiveness has often been difficult to find. [Laughlin and Hite, 1993] According to Whitley and Faria [1989], research has generally followed three themes. One has been the investigation of factors affecting simulation performance and the learning environment. Included here are student characteristics such as personality and academic achievement and team size and cohesiveness for simulations used with groups. [Miesing, 1982] A second stream of research has considered the ways in which learning occurs during the simulation and the type of learning developed. Many of these studies investigated cognitive and affective learning and the application of Bloom's taxonomy. [Anderson and Lawton, 1992] The third research theme has compared the educational benefits of simulations to other teaching methods such as case studies. Of interest here has been the impact of the simulation on the ability of students to learn and apply management concepts. [Faria and Whitley, 1990] However, in spite of the widespread use of management simulations and a substantial body of empirical research, the results are mixed and some doubt remains as to the validity of such exercises as teaching methods.

MANAGING CUSTOMERS FOR PROFITS

Managing Customers for Profits is a new generation of interactive multimedia simulations available on CD-ROM. The program blends simulation and multimedia technologies with a systems perspective to provide the user with a unique approach to learning management and marketing. The simulation enables the user to run TubePack, a supplier of industrial tubing products. Using text, graphics, sound and video commentary, financial records, coaching tips, and the theory modeled by the simulation, the user learns about the company and its market and then has the opportunity to run the business from an interactive control panel. With practice, students progress from an intellectual understanding of how to apply marketing theory to an operational understanding of knowing how to apply it in a simulated business environment. As the student progresses through the simulation making marketing and investment decisions, rapid learning occurs because students acquire knowledge and experience by applying concepts and experiencing immediate feedback in the form of company sales revenue and profit, market share and customer satisfaction.

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

Experiential learning is applied, participative, and interactive. In management education experiential learning is usually applied to a content domain, such as marketing, requires involvement rather than passivity on the part of the student and is interactive with someone or something other than the instructor. [Gentry, 1990] The interaction might involve the real world environment or some reasonable analogy of the real world. To the extent possible, experiential learning involves the "whole-person" in the sense that it impacts the affective and cognitive domain. Experiential learning exercises are structured to stimulate interest, provide a beneficial learning experience, encourage intellectual involvement, and provide feedback to guide the student during the learning activity. Case studies, internships, marketing research projects as well as simulations would be considered examples of experiential learning.

LEARNING STYLES

Experiential learning theory models what we know about how people think and develop intellectually. An important observation from experiential learning is that while we continually learn from experience, we do not all learn the same way. As a result of our personal experiences and our psychological make-up, we develop preferred ways or "styles" of learning. According to Kolb [1973], learning styles simply describe the way people prefer to absorb and incorporate new information. Learning styles affect the way we solve problems and make decisions.

Scholars have not agreed on a single definition of learning style or on the best way to assess the learning styles of individuals. [Campbell, 1991] Several commercial instruments, which vary in length, format and complexity, are being used to assess learning styles. One instrument, the Learning Style Inventory (LSI), has been widely used with college students and adults. Originally developed and published by Kolb in 1976 and revised in 1985, it has received support as a useful framework to help students identify their preferred learning style. [Kolb, 1976, 1984] After testing and scoring, the LSI provides information on four basic scales: CE (Learning from feeling), RO (Learning by watching and listening), AC (Learning by thinking) and AE (Learning by doing). Scores on each scale can range from 12 to 48.

The four scales become the basis for the two main dimensions of the learning process which correspond to the ways individuals learn. The first dimension is how we perceive new information or experience, (The Concrete-Abstract Dimension, AC-CE) and the second is how we process what we perceive (The Active-Reflective Dimension, AE-RO). An individual's position on each dimension is determined by subtracting the two appropriate scale scores.

The Concrete-Abstract dimension suggests that at one extreme, people learn through concrete experience (an experience-based approach to learning) or at the other extreme through abstract conceptualization (a conceptually-based, analytic approach to learning). Similarly, the Active-Reflective dimension occurs through active experimentation (an action-based, active approach to learning) or through reflective observation (an observation-based, impartial approach to learning). [Smith and Kolb, 1986] Therefore, learning occurs from the way people perceive new information and experience and then how they process what has been perceived. The LSI measures an individual's relative emphasis on these two bipolar dimensions and the instrument scores indicate the extent to which an individual's preferred style is concrete vs. abstract and active vs. reflective. By combining these dimensions, four learning styles are defined, each represented by a quadrant formed from the intersection of the two dimensions. Using Kolb's description, the four learning styles can be applied to students as follows:

Convergers: Dominant learning abilities are Abstract Conceptualization and Active Experimentation. Students with this learning style like problem solving, decision making, and the practical application of ideas and theories.

Divergers: Strengths opposite from those of the Converger. This learning style stresses adaptation by observation rather than action. Students with these learning styles tend to be feeling oriented, interested in people, and conflict avoiders.

Assimilators: Dominant learning abilities are Abstract Conceptualization and Reflective Observation. This learning orientation is less focused on people and more concerned with ideas and abstract concepts.

Logic, theory, sequential ordering, attention to detail, facts and figures are important to this person.

Accommodators: Learning strengths opposite those of the assimilator. This person is best at Concrete Experience and Active Experimentation. Accommodators like doing things, getting involved in new experiences and learning by intuitive trial and error.

Kolb believes everyone has a dominant learning style which influences how they learn, but that most individuals possess some aspects of all four learning styles. A factor yet to be investigated in the research on student learning styles is the relationship between learning style and student response to various teaching methods such as management simulations. This issue is considered in this research.

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND INTELLECTUAL INVOLVEMENT

The management simulation in this research is set in an academic environment. In such a setting, researchers have hypothesized that simulation performance might be related to various measures of academic achievement and intellectual involvement. Unfortunately, the research has not been conclusive. [Gosenpud, 1987] Some have found significant correlations between simulation performance and academic achievement using measures such as business school GPA, overall university GPA, scores on standardized tests such as the ACT, SAT, GMAT and first year graduate school grades. However, others, studying the same or similar variables found no relationship between simulation performance and academic ability. Researchers have not studied performance and academic achievement with the interactive simulation investigated in this study. Additionally, this study extends previous research by relating simulation performance to measures of student interest such as intellectual involvement, interest level and the effort applied to learning the simulation. Measures of student motivation and interest have been previously suggested as areas for investigation, but they have not been considered with the simulation studied here. [Gosenpud and Washbush, 1991]

TEACHING METHODS AND LEARNING

Important changes have occurred in the way students learn and how they prefer to be taught. Even though the lecture remains a widely used teaching method in management, many students want to participate in the learning process. Interactive classroom teaching, which involves students in an exchange of ideas and opinions with faculty, seems to offer more intellectual stimulation. Along with student preference for participation in learning, there is a related interest among students and faculty for courses that involve experiential learning. This pattern is not surprising because "learning from experience" has been a theme in management education for years through the use of live case studies, student consulting and marketing research projects, internships, computer-aided instruction, and simulations. At the authors' university, students continue to express strong interest in experiential learning because the teaching methods are viewed as helpful in learning and applying course concepts. Historically, management simulations have had similar benefits. However, no research has been found that evaluates the simulation in this study nor has any been discovered where it has been compared to other methods of teaching management. The comparison of Managing Customers for Profits to other teaching methods is part of this study.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research was conducted in three stages during the fall term of the 1997-98 academic year. Management and accounting majors enrolled in a marketing principles course at the authors' university provided data for the study. All aspects of the course were identical between sections, including assignments, examinations, instructors, and teaching methods. Information was collected on student learning styles, academic achievement, student learning variables such as intellectual involvement in the simulation, simulation performance, the effectiveness of the simulation in helping students learn and apply marketing principles, and student ratings of the teaching methods used in the course.

In stage one, the improved version of the Kolb Learning Style Inventory (LSI) was used to assess student learning styles during the first week of the semester. The LSI is a self-descriptive test where respondents rank order four alternative sentence endings to each of 12 questions according to how the response fits with the way they learn. Based on the numerically-scored responses on the CE, RO, AC and AE scales, a preferred learning style can be determined from the students' position on the Concrete-Abstract (AC-CE) and Active-Reflective(AE-RO) dimensions and placement in the four quadrant grid previously discussed.

In the second stage, academic achievement was measured by cumulative GPA. Involvement in the simulation was determined by student diaries reporting the time devoted to learning the simulation, simulation performance during the learning period and responses to Likert scaled questions about the simulation that included ease of learning, interest level, intellectual involvement, and its effectiveness in helping students learn and apply marketing principles. These items became part of a survey questionnaire that was administered to students after six weeks of the term, but before they were assigned to groups to work on the Team Course Project. At this point, students had worked individually for about four weeks learning the simulation.

To compare preferences for the teaching methods most helpful to students in learning marketing principles, the eight teaching methods used in the course were included in the research. They became part of a survey questionnaire that would also be administered to enrolled students in the third stage, at the end of the course. These teaching methods were: Class Lectures, Class Discussion, Assigned Reading, Course Handouts, Video Cases, Guest Speakers, Examinations, and a Team Course Project based on the MCFP simulation.

The teaching methods used are self-explanatory, except for the video cases and the Team Course Project. The videos were taken from The Excellence Files, a series of eight short video tapes that illustrated the latest trends in marketing, management and business strategy. The Team Course project was an experiential learning exercise assigned for the last half of the term. After working individually to learn the MCFP simulation, students were assigned to teams of four or five to prepare two written marketing strategy plans; the first for two business years of the simulation and the second for a five-year planning period. The simulation parameters and teams were changed for each part of the project, but all students worked on the same project assignments. The five-year marketing strategy plans were presented in class during the last week of the academic term to complete the course project.

At the end of the course, after the Team Course Projects were finished, students completed the third stage of the research by completing a survey questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed to have students rate each teaching method (Class Lecture, Assigned Readings, Team Course Project, etc.) according to how helpful it was in learning the marketing principles in the course. Each teaching method was scaled on a seven point Likert scale using the scale anchors for each outcome: 1 (Not Very Helpful), 4 (Helpful) and 7 (Very Helpful). Students were then asked: "Thinking about the ways you learned marketing principles during the term, please rate each of the teaching methods by circling the number that best represents its helpfulness to you." Fifty-five students (37 males and 18 females) completed the three stages of the research. All responses were usable in the analysis.

RESEARCH RESULTS

STUDENT LEARNING VARIABLES AND LEARNING STYLES

The results comparing the learning variables used to evaluate the MCFP simulation with student learning styles are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
EVALUATION OF LEARNING VARIABLES BY STUDENT LEARNING STYLE

Learning Variable	Student Learning Style Convergers	 Accommodators	 Assimilators	 Divergers
Time to Learn (hrs.)	3.09	2.97	2.94	3.92
Ease of Learning	4.71	5.50	5.31	5.00
Interesting	5.21	5.17	4.77	3.50
Intellectually Involving	4.91	5.00	4.69	3.50
Learning Marketing Principles	5.06	5.00	5.00	4.50
Applying Marketing Principles	5.24	5.00	4.85	5.00
Number in Sample	34	6	13	2

Mean Likert scale scores are based on 55 student responses. Scale anchors used in the stage two survey questionnaire were: Ease of Learning: 1 (Hard to Learn), 7 (Easy to Learn); Interesting: 1 (Not Interesting), 7 (Very Interesting); Intellectually Involving: 1 (Not Intellectually Involving), 7 (Very Intellectually Involving); Learning Marketing Principles and Applying Marketing Principles: 1 (Not Effective), 7 (Very Effective).

The distribution of learning styles in the student sample included a high percentage of convergers and assimilators. Accommodators and divergers were not well-represented in the marketing classes. This characteristic of the student sample is most likely explained by the nature of the management discipline and the pre-professional orientation of the authors' university. Almost all of the students in the course were majoring in management and accounting, self-selected disciplines that are attractive to students who enjoy solving problems and making decisions. According to Kolb, convergers and assimilators prefer to learn using logic and ideas, rather than feelings to understand problems and situations. However, the distribution of learning styles in the sample makes the research findings difficult to interpret.

With the exception of the two divergers, the results indicate the time to learn the simulation, its ease of learning, interest level, intellectual involvement and the effectiveness of the simulation in learning and applying marketing principles are not substantially influenced by learning style. Additionally, students required about three hours to learn how to operate the simulation and they found it reasonably easy to learn, interesting, and intellectually involving. The mean scale scores also suggest that the simulation is effective in helping students learn and apply marketing principles. The absence of differences across learning styles should be viewed as desirable, because it suggests the usefulness of the simulation in a classroom of students with different learning styles.

As part of the second stage research, students were also asked to provide written comments on the simulation as a method for learning and applying marketing principles. Some illustrative comments are provided below:

- "In the simulation, you can look at results and then create your marketing strategy. It will not be that way in real life. However, it is an excellent teaching/learning tool."
- "I like how it incorporates a large number of marketing principles."
- "A realistic case that helped apply marketing principles. Everyone had a different result - had to really use critical thinking. Helped me understand marketing strategies I have encountered as a customer."
- "Sometimes the process can become repetitive. It eventually became just a number crunching exercise with less thought about market effects."
- "In class we learned about so many more details which were not available in the simulation. I know this is a technology problem, but it was disappointing none the less."
- "It was nice being able to make decisions for a company and feeling like part of a marketing team."
- "I liked using the computer instead of learning out of a textbook."

Overall, student comments about the simulation were favorable. Some other positive features mentioned were its interactive quality and realistic setting, the opportunity to integrate investment decisions, financial results and marketing strategy, and the balance between learning and feedback. Negative features mentioned included simplistic, repetitious, insufficient information for decision making, and some simulation results that students believed were not grounded in marketing theory.

VARIABLES RELATED TO SIMULATION PERFORMANCE

Analysis of variance was used to study the relationship between student learning styles and the measures of simulation performance. No significant difference was found between learning styles and revenues, profits and major and minor customer satisfaction. Students with each of the learning styles achieved about the same performance on all measures. The research concludes that student learning style is not helpful in explaining simulation performance using the measures selected for the study. The relationship between the LSI learning style scales, learning dimensions derived from the scales, academic achievement, the learning variables shown in Table 1, the helpfulness of teaching methods and simulation performance was further investigated using correlation analysis. Although the variables technically do not meet the requirement of ratio scale measurement desired for correlation analysis, the authors believe the variables are reasonably close to the requirement to merit presentation here. The results of the are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
STUDENT LEARNING, ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND SIMULATION PERFORMANCE

Student Learning Variable	Revenues	Profits	Customer Satisfaction Major	Customer Satisfaction Minor
AC - Learning by thinking	.143	.152	.160	.184
RO - Learning by watching and listening		-.326		
AE - Learning by doing		.173		
AC-CE			.150	.202
AE-RO		.281		
Cumulative GPA	.138	.170	.186	.218
Assigned Reading	.316	.259	.306	.265

Correlation coefficients are based on 55 student responses. AC, RO and AE are scale scores based on responses to the Learning Style Inventory. AC-CE and AE-RO are learning dimensions derived by subtracting the LSI scale scores. Cumulative GPA is student grade point average for all courses completed at the university. Assigned Reading is based on Likert scale scores: 1(Not Very Helpful), 4 (Somewhat Helpful), 7 (Very Helpful).

Correlations between RO, AE-RO, Assigned Reading and the measures of simulation performance were significant at $p = .05$ or less. All other correlations were not statistically significant. Correlations smaller than .140 were excluded.

One variable was found to be related to all the variables used to measure simulation performance. AC, Learning by thinking, is a basic scale of the LSI and was positively related to high levels of revenues, profits and customer satisfaction. Students with high AC (Abstract Conceptualization) scores learn by logically analyzing ideas, systematic planning and acting on an intellectual understanding of a situation. This finding, although not statistically significant, is interesting because the models on which the simulation is constructed are grounded on established marketing theory. It was included because the correlations were positive for all measures of simulation performance suggesting the possibility of additional research with the LSI and the simulation.

LSI scales, RO and AC, were both related to profits. AE, Learning by doing, was not significant, but describes students who value getting things done and seeing the results of their influence and ingenuity. RO, Learning by watching and listening, was negatively correlated with simulation profits. Students with high scores on this scale learn by relying on observation, objectivity, and careful judgment but they are not results oriented. They are probably more interested in developing an understanding of the simulation than achieving profits.

The AC-CE learning dimension was positively, but not significantly related to customer satisfaction. High scores on this dimension indicate a preference for an experience based approach to learning. High scores on the AE-RO learning dimension were significantly related to simulation profitability. Students with high scores on this dimension prefer an action-based, active approach to learning.

Student cumulative GPA was also positively (but not significantly) related to each measure of simulation performance. This finding suggests that students with high academic achievement were able to achieve higher levels of performance on the simulation. The finding modestly supports some of the earlier research conducted on other management simulations. Finally, students who reported the assigned reading from the textbook to be helpful in learning marketing also achieved superior performance on the simulation. For educators, this finding is interesting because it suggests the value of emphasizing the need for course reading as one way of achieving higher levels of performance on the marketing simulation. It also suggests the potential value of the simulation as a course project that can be used to reinforce the other teaching and learning methods used in the educational process.

THE TEAM COURSE PROJECT AND OTHER TEACHING METHODS

The research results comparing student preferences for teaching methods are in Table 3. They indicate that both female and male students found most methods to be helpful, so a marketing principles course that uses several teaching methods is probably beneficial for an undergraduate program in management. The findings also emphasize the potential value of using both interactive and non-interactive teaching methods with undergraduate students to add variety and stimulate interest. If the course is properly designed and the teaching methods carefully integrated, all students should experience some intellectual stimulation.

TABLE 3

HELPFULNESS OF TEACHING METHODS IN LEARNING MARKETING PRINCIPLES

Teaching Method	Females (18) Mean Score	Males (37) Mean Score	Combined (55) Mean Score
Class Lectures	5.89	5.81	5.84
Class Discussion	5.06	5.43	5.31
Assigned Reading	4.83	4.60	4.67
Course Handouts	5.83	6.08	6.00
Videos (The Excellence Files)	6.17	5.51	5.73
Classroom Speakers	6.24	6.21	6.22
Examinations	4.33	4.16	4.22
Team Course Project	**5.56**	**5.70**	**5.66**

Scale anchors for the teaching methods in the questionnaire were 1 (Not Helpful), 4 (Helpful), and 7 (Very Helpful).

The teaching method using the simulation Managing Customers for Profits is highlighted in the table for purposes of comparison. The average scores for the Team Course Project are consistent with the continuing interest among students for teaching methods that feature experiential and interactive learning in a team setting. The MCFP simulation which was the basis for the team course project seems to be helpful to all students in learning marketing principles. The findings are comparable to those reported in previous research using a team course project featuring a "live" case study that required marketing research and marketplace interaction. [Lamont, 1997]

MULTIMEDIA SIMULATIONS AND MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

In an effort to further identify the importance of the personal computer and multimedia simulation as a way of providing marketing information, a final question in the third stage of the research asked students to make a choice between the personal computer and management simulation (MCFP) and a printed case study from a textbook or a reprint. Students were asked: "Considering the personal computer and Managing Customers for Profits as a way of providing information about marketing to students, do you think it is more effective or less effective than printed information such as a case study from a textbook or reprint?" The preferences for each format are in Table 4.

TABLE 4
STUDENT PREFERENCES FOR PRESENTING MARKETING INFORMATION

Preferred Information Format	Number	Percent
Personal Computer and Management Simulation (MCFP)	49	89 %
Printed Case Study from Textbook or Reprint	6	11
Total	55	100 %

The results indicate a substantial preference for the multimedia technology as a format for presenting information. The reasons frequently mentioned by students include the interactivity of multimedia presentations, the feeling of being in control, the instant feedback provided by the simulation, the students' inability to concentrate on printed material for long periods of time, and the speed at which marketing concepts can be learned from the personal computer and the simulation. Again, some written student comments are helpful in understanding the preferences:

- "The hands on interactive approach is absolutely more effective than a written case study. The MCFP is engaging and the student's extra attention is rewarded in learning."
- "Printed information does not allow for experiment or hands-on experience."
- "With the simulation, you feel as if you were an actual participant. Also, I enjoy working with computers and interactive activities much more than reading case studies."
- "I learn more and more quickly when learning is interactive. While a written case study may have included more information, the computer simulation was engaging."
- "The personal computer gave me a chance to design various strategies and implement them. It's always better to try something than to read about it."
- "Any time a student has a direct effect on an outcome, interest will be greater and hence, learning is easier and more fun."
- "Without being able to refer to a book about marketing, I would have been "left in the cold." I see this simulation as a compliment to the textbook."

The last student comment is worthy of emphasis. While the operation of the simulation can be learned quickly by students, successful performance requires a substantial knowledge of marketing principles which are presented during the class lectures and available in the course textbook. The simulation is not a substitute for other proven teaching methods, but a complement that provides an opportunity to teach marketing in an interactive learning environment which students find engaging and involving.

CONCLUSIONS

Students continue to respond favorably to interactive case studies and multimedia simulations as a way to learn marketing and management. The simulation evaluated in this study, Managing Customers for Profits, seems to work well as a method of teaching marketing strategy to individual students and to students working on project teams. Even though students learned the simulation individually before working in a team setting, they reported it to be a useful teaching method to help students learn and apply marketing principles. Additionally, the multimedia simulation seems to be very workable as the basis of a team course project when it is combined with a written marketing strategy plan and a classroom presentation. It is the authors' opinion that the simulation is most suitable in an academic environment of motivated undergraduate students or graduate students pursuing an MBA. While the simulation was used in a marketing principles course here, it is also appropriate for a more advanced course in marketing strategy or marketing management.

A number of the simulation features were found to be attractive to the students in this study. Undergraduate students seem to enjoy learning in an interactive, multimedia format. Many admitted to having short attention spans and a limited ability to concentrate on printed material. They seem to respond to a learning environment that provides the opportunity to learn quickly, receive instantaneous feedback and apply course concepts in a realistic setting. Like all teaching methods, simulations also have features that students find undesirable. Complaints about the simulation were that it was unrealistic, repetitious, and not sufficiently grounded in marketing theory because it produced unsuspected results. The last observation was usually the result of students not clearly understanding the time lag that often occurs between making strategic decisions and observing the improvements in performance. Students who experimented with the simulation and learned this important principle usually performed in a superior fashion.

The simulation has two additional features which make it attractive as a course component. The structure of the simulation makes it necessary for students to understand economics, accounting (including financial statements and budgeting), marketing research and financial investment. For faculty who are interested in a practical method to integrate the various management disciplines, Managing Customers for Profits provides a teaching method for doing so. In addition, the simulation is very helpful for teaching marketing strategy and marketing management. Simulation options include the ability to practice strategy development and implementation in several different economic scenarios for time periods of up to twenty quarters or five years. Different budget and spending options are also possible with each scenario which provides the teacher a variety of possibilities for varying the simulation for students.

Student learning styles were found to be unrelated to simulation performance, the time required to learn the simulation and learning variables such as intellectual involvement. All students found the simulation reasonably easy to learn, interesting, and intellectually involving. The simulation was also rated effective by students as a way to learn and apply marketing principles. However, a definitive statement about the relationship of student learning styles, simulation performance and learning variables is not possible with this research. Implementing a highly controlled research design to control for competing variables and hypotheses was not reasonable in the educational setting. This factor probably impacted the research results. Nevertheless, there was some evidence to suggest that some of the basic LSI scales had promise for additional research. One finding worthy of emphasis was that students who found the assigned textbook reading to be helpful in learning marketing also performed better on the simulation.

In summary, Managing Customers for Profits, appears to be a worthwhile teaching method for marketing and management education. When used as the basis for a term course project, students rate the project very favorably as a way to learn and apply marketing principles In the authors' experience, the team course project utilizing the multimedia simulation was as effective as previous course projects that used more realistic case studies requiring marketing research and customer interaction. Marketing educators are encouraged to consider the simulation as a complementary teaching method.

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AN INTERACTIVE APPROACH TO TEACHING USING CASE METHOD AND GLOBAL INDUSTRY SIMULATION

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Abstract

The case study method when supplemented by computerized global industry simulation provides an interactive and effective pedagogical approach to teaching capstone business courses.

INTRODUCTION

The case study approach, which was pioneered by Harvard University in 1911, has become the most popular method of teaching the capstone courses for business programs [Thompson and Strickland, 1998; Wheelen and Hunger, 1998; Jennings, 1997; and Bower et al, 1995]. Analysis of cases of actual companies provides the students with an opportunity to integrate business knowledge acquired in other courses and to gain experience in decision making and strategy formulation and implementation [Thompson and Strickland, 1998; Jennings, 1996; Abouzeid, 1983; and Mintzberg, 1977].

Numerous reasons have been found in the literature explaining why the case method is gaining popularity in teaching the capstone courses of strategic management, business policy, and business strategy. Following are some of these reasons:

1. The case approach to strategic analysis allows students to diagnose actual company problems and recommend appropriate course of action; and therefore, it is first and foremost an exercise in learning by doing [Thompson and Strickland, 1998].
2. Listening to lectures and sound advice about managing does little for students' management skills. Studying real life business cases, however, is a useful pedagogical tool that can effectively develop their abilities of discovery and enhances their problem-solving skills [Gilmore and Schall, 1996; and Zhao, 1996].
3. The most fundamental contribution of the case method is its active and participative learning experience which enables students to develop communication and interpersonal skills. This experience is much more effective than the traditional and passive lecture approach [Cinneide, 1997; and Jennings, 1996].

Despite the popularity of the case method, an investigation of literature and research revealed that several other pedagogical methods are employed in teaching the capstone business courses. Computer-based simulation games, for example, is another approach that provides "hands-on experience" in decision-making, strategy formulation and implementation, and other benefits [Thompson and Stappenbeck, 1998; and Jennings, 1966]. Advocates of computerized simulation approach, however, consider both case and lecture methods antiquated [Harvey, 1982; and Minzberg, 1977].

The above information poses some questions and signifies a need for more understanding of the case method approach to teaching. This paper is an attempt to meet this need and to fill a void in business education literature. It reports the results of over forty semesters of experimentation with various pedagogical methods including case studies, while teaching strategy and policy, at both the graduate and undergraduate levels. The paper was designed to accomplish the following objectives:

1. Suggest an interactive approach to teaching that uses computerized simulation game as a supplement to the case method.
2. Provide some policy guidelines that facilitate case teaching effectiveness and stimulate active and participative classroom learning environment.

It is hoped that publication of this paper will be helpful in knowledge integration, teamwork, problem-solving and decision-making, and most importantly, strategy formulation and implementation.

METHODOLOGY

Data for this paper were drawn from publications on the subject; experimentation with various pedagogical methods over more than two decades of teaching business policy and strategy at the graduate and undergraduate levels; feedback from MBA students through informal evaluation of the course and formal questionnaires; and finally, input from participation in numerous business policy symposia and professional development conferences.

The interactive approach emphasizes the strengths of each method and uses each to complement the other to achieve the course objectives. In this approach, the course syllabus is viewed as the strategic plan for accomplishing these objectives. A well formulated strategic plan (syllabus) submitted to the students on the first day of class and the successful implementation of the plan over the semester or the academic year are essential for the effective teaching of the course. It evolved from two pages to fifteen and was designed after consultation with numerous sources [Thompson and Stappenbeck, 1998; Thompson and Strickland, 1998; Bower et al, 1995; Abouzeid, 1983; Christensen, et al, 1982; and Eldredge and Bates, 1980].

In addition to introduction to the course and a listing of required and optional textbooks, the strategic plan (syllabus) is made up of four components and six exhibits. The four components are: objectives of the course, teaching methodology, grading policy, and weekly assignments. Excerpts drawn from the first three components of the syllabus that students receive in the first class meeting are shown below.

OBJECTIVES OF THE COURSE

Students completing this course should be able to:

1. Apply knowledge acquired from prior quantitative/qualitative courses and integrate business functions of production, marketing, finance, etc. in making company-wide decisions.
2. Develop an analytical framework necessary for organizational problem-solving and decision-making.
3. Use information from financial statements and various business reports in the development and updating of strategic plans.
4. Gain insight in the challenges of competing in a global market environment characterized by foreign exchange fluctuations, tariff barriers, and cost differences.
5. Work in teams, assume risk, and acquire analytical and communicative skills.

TEACHING METHODOLOGY

Since this is mainly an analysis and decision-making class, its success will be dependent upon each student being fully prepared and actively contributing to class discussions. Therefore, it is imperative that students attend each class and be active rather than passive participants. Members of the class are required to study the assignments prior to class meetings, complete the homework, and are encouraged to bring their ideas and experiences to the class.

Two approaches will be used throughout the year to accomplish the stated course objectives. The first approach is discussion and analysis of actual business cases using video tapes when available. The second approach is hands-on experience in co-managing a company using a computerized, integrated, global simulation.

Case Presentation and Analysis

Case presentation and analysis will be assigned to teams of three students each. With respect to actual cases from the textbook, the presenting students must gather additional information they feel they need to present their case to the class. As in real life situations, decisions must be made even if there is not sufficient information. Excellent sources of information include: computerized data services such as COMPUSTAT, Compact Disclosure, Moody's, Standard and Poor's, Strategic Planning Institute publications, Business Periodical Index, the individual company's annual and quarterly reports, 10K reports, Prospectuses, Business Week, Forbes, Fortune, Value Line, and The Wall Street Journal. Additional information is available via Internet and websites.

During case presentation and analysis, the students must put themselves in the place of the firm's decision makers; they must forget temporarily that they are students in class, and must listen carefully to the contribution of others. The presenting teams must clearly establish and state their roles prior to presentation and analysis of a case. The presenting team, for example, may assume any of the following roles:

1. The role of an outside consulting firm. The other class members in this instance could act as the executive or management committee or the Board of Directors.
2. The role of staff members reporting to top management. The other class members in this situation could act as the Chief Executive Officer or the Board of Directors.
3. The role of the CEO or the President. The other class members could act as members of BOD or the stockholders of this specific firm.
4. The role of designated persons in the case (role playing). The other class members in this instance could assume any of the above mentioned roles.

At the end of the class period, a class vote will be taken on the recommended course of action. The class decision will be compared with individual and team decisions and with the actual company's decision, if available.

There is more than one framework for analysis of cases. The one which is suggested for adoption, in this class for analysis of most cases, is made up of the following ten components:

1. Background information
2. Identification of the firm's major problem/s;
3. Examination of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats facing the firm (SWOT analysis)
4. Industry and competitive analysis
5. Financial analysis
6. Generation of alternative strategies (solutions)
7. Evaluation of alternatives using the elimination process and/or other criterion
8. Recommendation of a strategic plan or course of action
9. Implementation of recommended strategic plan--if feasible, this will include proforma financial statements
10. Update

Finally, each presenting team is expected to prepare a typewritten detailed report of the case (maximum 12 pages) to be submitted to the instructor immediately after presentation. Penalty equivalent to 10% of report grade will be subtracted from late reports. In addition, each non-presenting student is expected to prepare a four-page analysis of every case to be used for class discussion. These brief write-ups should be typed, prepared carefully, and to the point.

Business Strategy Game: Global Industry Simulating

The Business Strategy Game is a PC-based simulation exercise that gives players hands-on experience in formulating and implementing strategies, making business decisions, and being responsible for their company's financial results. This simulation incorporates the international dimensions of strategy and it has a built-in 5-year strategic planning model which enables students to develop a 5-year strategic plan and project the revenue/cost/profit consequences of the upcoming year's decision for up to 5 years in advance [Thompson and Stappenbeck, 1998].

The class will be divided into a number of competing and on-going companies. Three students will be responsible for management of each company from the beginning until the end of the semester. After the first three decisions, each company's management is required to submit completed forms of company mission, five-year projections of objectives, and strategies At the end of the game, each company is expected to prepare an annual report for the stockholders. The annual report must include financial statements, various strategies followed by management to achieve projected goals, and comparison of actual with planned performance.

Simulation final grade will be based on six performance measures: sales revenues/market share, net income/EPS, return on equity, company's bond rating, stock price/market value of company's common stock, company's strategy rating; and also on how well the company achieved its projected goals. However; if a company's Altman's Bankruptcy Index drops into the "bankruptcy zone" (below 1.8), the company is automatically placed on financial probation. The Altman's Bankruptcy Index uses an objective mechanism "a regression equation" to predict companies that will go bankrupt within one or two years [Thompson and Stappenbeck, 1998].

While on financial probation a bankruptcy hearing will be convened between managers of the bankrupt company and the instructor. After hearing the manager's arguments, the instructor will determine whether to allow the company to continue to operate on financial probation for another two years or declare the company bankrupt (immediately liquidated and dissolved). The bankrupt company will be deleted from the industry and each team member will receive a failing grade for the simulation game [Thompson and Stappenbeck, 1998]. If the company is allowed to operate for two more years, the company's officers will be required to submit a turnaround strategy to the instructor.

GRADING POLICY

Course grade will be based on the student's performance in the following areas or activities:

	Activity	Maximum Number Of Points	Percent of Total Grade
1.	Case presentation and analysis:		
	(a) Peer evaluation of oral presentation (Exhibit 1)	75	15%
	(b) Instructor's evaluation of written case report (Exhibit 2)	75	15%
	(c) Case write-ups (discussion paper)	75	15%
2.	Simulation decisions (Exhibit 4)	150	30%
3.	Class participation and attendance (Exhibit 5)	75	15%
4.	Peer evaluation of team member contributions (Exhibit 6)	50	10%
	Totals	500	100%

In addition to the four syllabus components, six detailed exhibits are included. Following is a brief description of each exhibit:

Exhibit 1: Peer Evaluation of Case Presentation and Analysis

Nonpresenting class members are expected to complete a quantitative and qualitative evaluation form on the quality of the oral presentation of the case analysis. The criteria for numerical evaluations include preparation, communication, involving students in class participation, problem identification, financial analysis, SWOT analysis, industry and competitive analysis, alternative strategies, recommendations, and update. At the bottom of the page, students are expected to write in comments and observations. These comments and observations are consolidated by the instructor and returned to the presenting students with the numerical evaluation as feedback from their peers.

Exhibit 2: Instructor's Evaluation of Written Case Report

Each presenting team is required to submit a professional typewritten report following case presentation. This report is evaluated by the instructor. Exhibit 2 outlines the variables used by the instructor in evaluating written case reports. These variables are: organization, mechanics and writing style, problem identification, analysis, generation and evaluation of alternative strategies, recommendations, and implementation.

Exhibit 3: The Business Strategy Game Bankruptcy Assessment

This exhibit describes the bankruptcy procedure. It is based on Altman's formula of combining financial ratios to calculate the Z score which is an index developed through multiple discriminate analysis. The index is automatically calculated by computer and given to each company as a predictor of financial stress. If the index is 3.00 or above, the company is in the "safe zone" and it is an indication of a healthy firm. If the index is below 1.81, the company is in the "bankrupt zone" and it indicates problems. Finally, if the score falls between 1.81 and 3.00, the firm is in the "gray zone" and it indicates question marks. Company managers in the bankrupt zone are placed on probation and are required to submit a turn around strategy. If managers fail to get the company out of the bankruptcy zone, the company is liquidated [Thompson and Stappenbeck, 1998; Wheelen and Hunger, 1998; and Hirt and Block, 1996].

Exhibit 4: Simulation Decision Evaluation Form

This exhibit describes the requirements from each team managing a company and how managers are evaluated.

A large percent of the simulation grade is based on each company's performance using the six performance measures previously described.

Additionally, managers of each company are required to submit:

a. statements of mission, objectives, and strategies (5-year horizon)
b. print-out of a five-year strategic plan, and
c. annual report, at the end of the game, that includes comparison of actual vs planned performance

Exhibit 5: Class Participation and Attendance

Fifteen percent of total course grade is allocated to class participation and attendance. This exhibit explains what is expected of each student in order to earn the maximum number of points allocated to this category. Students attending class and participating in class discussions will accumulate participation points based on the quality of their contributions.

Exhibit 6: Peer Evaluation of Team Work

The final exhibit provides guidelines for assessment of the performance of each team member including attendance of team meetings, quality of preparations, and ranking of members' contributions to team effort.

DISCUSSION

Results of written questionnaires completed by MBA students at the end of each semester consistently showed that students benefited most from using a combination of pedagogical methods in teaching business policy and strategy as compared with one single method. When students were asked to check only one of the methods that they benefitted most from the largest percentage selected cases; others selected management simulation games; and still others selected lectures and research projects. When the same students, however, were asked to choose between the method of their choice and the combination of pedagogical methods as the most beneficial, the overwhelming majority of the students selected the combination of cases and simulation.

It goes without saying that the use of this interactive approach is not an automatic assurance of teaching success and panacea for all course problems. The well designed and thoroughly implemented strategic plan or course syllabus gives the students an understanding of objectives, methodologies used, grading policies and weekly assignments from the very first class meeting. It enables them and the instructor to map out the entire semester and to handle operational aspects of the class. Implementation of the strategic plan begins with a 3-session orientation during which teams are assigned, the concepts of planning, policy and strategy are explained, case analysis techniques are examined, and a trial decision of the simulation game is made.

The initial step for the instructor, then, is the formulation of the course syllabus as the strategic plan. Following that, the ensuing policies and guidelines are essential for its successful implementation and for providing an effective learning experience:

1. Student Involvement in the Implementation of Course Syllabus

    It has been shown that students given an opportunity to participate in implementation of the course syllabus perform better if they select their own team members (for simulations and cases), and have a say in the choice of cases they are interested in or familiar with. Such participative involvement is an effective policy for educators as well as for businesses and works especially well in this interactive format.

2. Creating a Stimulating Class Environment

    If a learning situation is established in the first session wherein student and instructor responsibilities are clearly understood, agreed upon, and stated in writing, the instructor will then be able to use class time for positive motivation of students to achieve optimum participation. Some tactics which work toward maintenance of such a positive working environ include: encouragement of individual students, avoidance of embarrassment and alienation which may arise during team presentations, and consistency on the part of the instructor regarding freedom of expression within class discussions.

3. Pro-Forma Financial Statements

    One of the most practical but all too often overlooked tactics of a policy course involves the use of projected financial statements in the implementation of strategies. In the case analysis process, presenting team members must evaluate alternative solutions to company's problems and recommend the best alternative/s for future action. This recommendation must be substantiated by pro-forma income statement, balance sheet, and cash flow statement, projected for a number of years. The use of projected financial statements forces the students to be realistic and practical and enables them to see the impact of their recommended course of action on the total operations of the company in quantitative terms. For instance, in projecting an income statement, students have to determine volume of sales, level of production, variable and fixed costs, cost of capital, and taxes before discussing profits or losses.

4. Discussion Paper "Talking Paper"

    Another tactic for effective implementation of the course syllabus also solves a perennial problem involving weekly student preparation. Each non-presenting student is required to prepare a brief written analysis of the week's assigned case. It is known in advance that four/five of those analyses will be randomly selected for grading throughout the semester. The result of this procedure is most regular student attendance, well-prepared class members, and a usually lively question-answer period.

5. Projection of Goals and Strategies for Simulated Companies

    In order to familiarize the students with the projection of goals under uncertainty, similar to the real business world, each simulated company's management is required to submit, immediately after the second decision, a statement of mission, projected goals in key decision areas and strategies to achieve stated goals. The goals which must be stated in qualitative and quantitative terms are updated periodically, with the final game results (actual) measured against the projected goals in order to determine deviations.

6. Preparation of Annual Reports

    At the completion of the simulation game, each team must prepare an annual report as part of their professional training. Besides encouraging students to read available annual reports as preparation for writing their own, this requirement necessitates that they keep accurate records of their company's decisions and financial statements throughout the semester, justify their decisions to stockholders especially in the cases of deviations from initial projections, and explain their company's future strategies.

7. The Use of Multiple Criteria for Evaluating Student Performance

   Finally, in order to minimize subjectivity and bias in grading students, a multiple measure (grading policy) has been used in implementation of the course syllabus. This well-balanced evaluation system (explained in grading policy) provides students with a tangible and non-threatening means of assessing their own performance. Well before the completion of the semester, by use of an accumulated weight/points system, each student is aware of his/her class standing.

8. Efficient Allocation of Class Time

   It is imperative that the instructor, in the orientation class meetings, outline the proportions of class time devoted to lecture, case presentation by team, question and answer sessions, etc. With respect especially to the team presentation, such time constraints force members to discipline their own presentations, perhaps rehearse before coming to class, and, in the end, present a professional analysis to both class and instructor.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the findings of this study confirm the author's personal observation that the interactive approach, presented in this paper, meets the needs and desires of most students studying capstone courses. They also indicate that the use of a range of teaching options exposes the students to a more beneficial and enriching learning experience. Consequently, it is time for business professors to cease and desist the use of one pedagogical method to the exclusion of others; to end criticism and in fighting between adherents of different methods; and instead to recognize the positive synergistic effect of integration of two or more methods. It is hopeful that the publication of this article and the dissemination of this information will be helpful in this regard and will be valuable to instructors, the business policy/strategy discipline in general, and, most importantly, to business students.

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MARY MCLEOD BETHUNE BLACK STUDIES PROGRAM: A SIMULATION

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Abstract

This is a simulation of the development of an undergraduate Black Studies Program. The team consisted of four students in the Doctoral Program in Educational Leadership at Johnson and Wales University in Rhode Island, U.S.A. The course was in higher education curriculum. Each member of the team contributed his/her learning and expertise in the areas of black culture, research, and technology. The final products were a written proposal and an oral/video presentation with recommended resources and instructions for transferring it to both CD-ROM and web site formats.

INTRODUCTION

Students working in teams of 4-5 were responsible for a project in higher education curriculum during the fall semester 1997. Each project was required to have an action research component, including extensive analysis and synthesis of relevant research, literature, and best practice information. In addition, each group was to present this project to their colleagues in class using teaching innovations that incorporated technology and other strategies that would illustrate improved pedagogy. Projects were to demonstrate each groups' skills in communication (writing, speaking, reading, listening), problem solving skills, critical thinking, interpersonal skills (such as working and groups and leading them), computer literacy, appreciation of cultural diversity, and the ability to adapt to innovation and change. Each presentation was to be one, to one and one-half hours in length, followed by questions and feedback.

These doctoral students, without any prior multicultural program administration experience, used a question path that was predetermined by their higher education curriculum professor as an outline for the final product. The students brought experience to the project either in working in multicultural academic environments or as members of an under represented population in the student body of his/her respective undergraduate institution of higher learning.

PROCESS

The project our team chose is the following:

"You have been asked to develop an undergraduate curriculum for a Black Studies Program at your college/university. Your goal is to establish the field as a valid area of study, as a valid area of intellectual inquiry.

Who will you choose as curriculum committee members? Why?

What top three programs would you look at as you develop the model and curriculum?

What journals and resources would you share with the curriculum committee?

Why these resources and in what fields would they be?

Manning Marable, distinguished historian at Columbia University has said, "if we are really going to change the black community, we must educate those institutions which are educating black students." How would you educate your institution regarding the new curriculum?

Is there a database of research you can use regarding Black Studies programs? Is there more than one and if so, where are they, and who is considered to have the best?

In order to develop a constructivist curriculum, the committee will survey black households around the country to document the views of mainstream African-Americans, therefore, what questions will you include in your question path?

Since this is a major undertaking, in order to work smarter and not harder, what newspapers would you write in about the curriculum project? Write a brief sample column for this presentation. When you searched the database, how many black newspapers did you discover?

There is a body of thought that says relying on joint appointments leaves a black studies department diluted, eviscerated and unfocused. There are other theorists who believe that we must promote democratic initiative in curriculum and pedagogical practices and that knowledge is socially produced and is systematically relational and heterogeneous. Will the committee recommend joint appointments or a unified department? Why? Support your answer with the literature.

How will the committee build support for the curriculum?

How and in what capacities will the committee seek out the expertise of Molefi Kete Asante, William Julius Wilson, Cornel West and Henry Louis Gates?

The committee wants the program on CD-ROM, with plans to eventually do the work on line, on disk and in print. Also include the setting up for the program and link of a Web page. Address this in your presentation and in the written document submitted by your team."

RESPONSES

QUESTION 1: WHO WILL YOU CHOOSE AS CURRICULUM COMMITTEE MEMBERS? WHY?

Since the faculty senate nominates the curriculum committee for a two-year cycle, then these are the individuals who the group is recommending:

Molefi Kete Asante, Chairman of the African Studies Department at Temple University
William Julius Wilson, Professor of African American Studies at Harvard University
Cornel West, Professor of Religion and African American Studies at Harvard University
Henry Louis Gates, Jr., Director of the W.E.B. DuBois Institute, Chair of the Afro-American Studies Department at Harvard University
Manning Marable, Director of the Institute for Research for African-American Studies at Columbia University
Evelyn Brooks Higginbotham (African-American women's history expert)
John F. Kaim (economist)
James Lorand Matory (religion)
Werner Sollors (20th century lit. history)

As their credentials illustrate, these individuals are opinion leaders who are directors of leading black studies programs in the United States.

QUESTION 2: WHAT THREE LEADING PROGRAMS WOULD YOU LOOK AT AS YOU DEVELOP THE MODEL AND CURRICULUM?

When reviewing the leading programs to develop our model and curriculum we decided to look at the programs the scholars in the field considered to be the best in the country. The scholars: Dr. Molefi Asante, Chairman of the African Studies Department at Temple University; Dr. Manning Marable, Director of the Institute for Research for African-American Studies at Columbia University; Dr. Henry Louis Gates Jr., Director of the W.E.B. DuBois Institute, Chair of the Afro-American Studies Department at Harvard

University; Jacqueline Wade, past Executive Director of the National Council for Black Studies, and Dr. Edmund W. Gordon, Director of the City University of New York Institute for Research on the African Diaspora in the Americas and the Caribbean, identified twelve programs. They are: Cornell, Temple, Ohio State, University of California at Berkeley, Harvard, Yale, University of Michigan, University of Massachusetts, Princeton, University of California at Los Angeles, New York University, and California State University at Long Beach. We then reviewed these programs for curricula content. An effective curriculum model is one where the analyst can say with confidence,

"Nothing that matters in the real world was left out" [Chronbach, in Ratcliff, p. 12]. To be sure our program was state of the art and reflected the real world; we looked at several areas in an attempt to identify the three leading programs. The criteria we used for ranking were:

degrees offered
variety of courses
departmentalization
community support
faculty and curriculum/program focus
additional components of the program (i.e. lecture series, publications, and student organizations)
impact on the field
support services (i.e. library, institutes/centers, and faculty)
graduates
technological assistance

After a thorough review of these programs, we decided that Temple University, Ohio State University, and Harvard University best reflected the field of black studies. The review also pointed out an excellent opportunity that many programs overlooked a focus on black women. Therefore, we deemed it necessary to also review Smith College, a well-known women's college in the state of Massachusetts, U.S.A..

QUESTION 3: WHAT JOURNALS AND RESOURCES WOULD YOU SHARE WITH THE CURRICULUM COMMITTEE?

There is an overabundance of resources in the field of Black Studies. Ultimately, the curriculum committee would have the finest of resources and journals in all formats to support both the undergraduate program and broaden its knowledge base in each member's area of expertise. The following list contains examples of recommended resources encompasses a broad knowledge base in the area of Black Studies:

I. Professional Journals for Faculty/Administration
- "The Black Scholar"
- "Howard Law Journal"
- "Review of Black Political Economy"
- "Race Relations Abstracts"
- "Western Journal of Black Studies" -- interdisciplinary; research -- publication given award for promoting outstanding scholarship w/regards to African-American issues.

II. Web Sites
- Universal Black Pages (web site)
- Virtual Community: African American Library Research Guide

III. Online Journals
- "Callaloo Online" -- online journal: African-American (award winning journal) arts and letters
- "Congressional Times Journal" -- online Capitol Hill newspaper
- The Black Periodical Literature Project: (at Harvard)

IV. Education
- "Black Issues in Higher Education"
- "Journal of Negro Education"
- "Minority Advancement Profile" (MAP) -- African American Entrepreneurs/Careers
- "Equity and Excellence in Education"

V. Arts/Music/Humanities
- "Research in African Literatures"
- "International Review of African-American Art"
- "Black Music Research Journal"
- "Onyx Woman"- celebrates African-American Women

VI. Social Sciences/Religion
- "Journal of Black Psychology"
- "Science and Society"
- "Journal of Religious Thought"
- "Race and Class"

QUESTION 4: WHY THESE RESOURCES AND IN WHAT FIELDS WOULD THEY BE?

Many viable resources for this program exist and are expanding rapidly due to the rate of publication. The four members of the committee chose these resources for several reasons including the ability to disseminate quality information to professional and student audiences and networking with other reputable sources of information; often in more focused areas of study.

For example, the "Universal Black Pages are recognized as being another "Yahoo" [a web browser]. Yahoo provides users of all backgrounds and skill levels with boundless links to other resources. This method of conducting literature searches is representative of a treasure hunt-like activity and can actually bring students and faculty closer together.

One criterion that the committee tried to avoid was to choose such rare journals and resources that it would be too costly and time-consuming for the curriculum committee to access them.

QUESTION 5: MANNING MARABLE, DISTINGUISHED HISTORIAN AT COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY HAS SAID,"IF WE ARE REALLY GOING TO CHANGE THE BLACK COMMUNITY, WE MUST EDUCATE THOSE INSTITUTIONS WHICH ARE EDUCATING BLACK STUDENTS". HOW WOULD YOU EDUCATE YOUR INSTITUTION REGARDING THE NEW CURRICULUM?

An attempt was made to reach Dr. Marable, to ask him what he meant by this statement, unfortunately he was not available to respond to the question. Our team believes that his statement parallels Ratcliff [1997], who states, "If the larger society does not value a particular line of inquiry, discipline, or field of study, students will come to the college or university with little motivation to include it in their studies." [p. 21] Based on the two previous statements it is evident that we must not only educate our institution regarding new curriculum but the society at large. One way to do this is through the World Wide Web, so we developed an Internet site. It was designed after reviewing the literature and web sites of the leading twelve programs. We incorporated the best practices of our colleagues and added our culture and creativity to design a site that truly supports the establishment of the field as a valid area of study and intellectual inquiry. The web site address would be included on all information the school prints regarding recruiting, academic disciplines, multiculturalism, and community outreach. The plan would be for the web site to support the Mary McLeod Bethune Black Studies Program and to educate viewers regarding the curriculum. An extensive public relations program utilizing the school's public affairs department will be developed and implemented over the first couple years of the programs. This public relations campaign would include inviting nationally known leaders to the campus who can lend credibility to our purpose, meetings with academic advisors to ensure proper knowledge and benefits of the program, presentations at professional days to ensure faculty knowledgeable and supportive of our effort, hosting a community night which would be the start of a long and mutually beneficial relationship, and various forms of promotion from bulletin boards to flyers. At each of these opportunities the web site address would be shared and recommended for further information.

QUESTION 6: IS THERE A DATABASE OF RESEARCH YOU CAN USE REGARDING BLACK STUDIES PROGRAMS? IS THERE MORE THAN ONE AND IF SO, WHERE ARE THEY, AND WHO IS CONSIDERED TO HAVE THE BEST

Several online databases regarding Black Studies programs were consulted by members of Johnson and Wales doctoral students' team. Many of these databases were discovered by searching Internet web browsers and consulting The African American Resource Guide to the Internet and Online Services.

- "The Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade Database is the largest in the world located at Temple University" [Applebome, p. 28].
- The African American Resource Guide to the Internet and Online Services recommended "The Universal Black Pages" (UBP) "which was created (and is developed) by members of the Black Graduate Students Association at the Georgia Institute of Technology" [Battle, p.52] for the committee 's purpose of researching information on undergraduate programs.

QUESTION 7: IN ORDER TO DEVELOP A CONSTRUCTIVIST CURRICULUM, THE COMMITTEE WILL SURVEY BLACK HOUSEHOLDS AROUND THE COUNTRY TO DOCUMENT THE VIEWS OF MAINSTREAM AFRICAN-AMERICANS, THEREFORE, WHAT QUESTIONS WILL YOU INCLUDE IN YOUR QUESTION PATH?

Black households will be asked the following questions:

1. Is a Black Studies Program necessary? Why?
2. If you were to choose one institution of higher education for Black Studies, what would be your choice? Why?
3. In your opinion, what courses should be listed in an undergraduate Black Studies Program?
4. How could you benefit from a Black Studies Program?
5. Who do you think should enroll in a Black Studies Program? Why?
6. Should all undergraduate students be required to take a course in Black Studies? Why?
7. Which of these areas of study would be of interest to you?
    - Literature
    - Language
    - Economics
    - Music
    - Drama
    - Sociology
    - Art History
    - Anthropology
    - Political Science
    - Folklore
    - Religion
    - Philosophy

QUESTION 8: SINCE THIS IS A MAJOR UNDERTAKING, IN ORDER TO WORK SMARTER AND NOT HARDER, WHAT NEWSPAPERS WOULD YOU WRITE IN ABOUT THE CURRICULUM PROJECT? WRITE A BRIEF SAMPLE COLUMN FOR THIS PRESENTATION. WHEN YOU SEARCHED THE DATABASE, HOW MANY BLACK NEWSPAPERS DID YOU DISCOVER?

When we searched the database, we discovered 250 Black newspapers. We would write about the Mary McLeod Bethune Black Studies Program in the following newspapers:

a. *The New York Times*
b. *Chronicle of Higher Education*
c. *Black Issues in Higher Education*

Our sample column would read as follows:

- Given our multicultural or international orientation at Johnson & Wales University, and based on the results of a survey conducted recently on the possibility of a Black Studies Bachelor's degree program, the board of directors has voted unanimously to offer Black Studies courses beginning in the Fall of 1998.
- Our goal is to offer a variety of courses that not only meet our students' expectations, but are also reflective of society and our students' body. The curriculum will include courses such as: The African American Literary Tradition, Modern African American Poetry, Anthropology, Art and Colonialism, Black Cinemas, Diaspora Cinemas, Black music and American Racial encounter, Afro-Latin society and politics, The Other African Americans, Contribution of Black Colleges and Universities to Higher

Education in the United States.
- Faculty from Black Studies programs at several major universities will be invited to lecture as distinguished visiting professors.
- The university plans to select a knowledgeable and experienced staff in Afro-American studies. We are excited about this new program.

QUESTION 9: THERE IS A BODY OF THOUGHT THAT SAYS RELYING ON JOINT APPOINTMENTS LEAVES A BLACK STUDIES DEPARTMENT DILUTED, EVISCERATED AND UNFOCUSED. THERE ARE OTHER THEORISTS WHO BELIEVE THAT WE MUST PROMOTE DEMOCRATIC INITIATIVE IN CURRICULUM AND PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES AND THAT KNOWLEDGE IS SOCIALLY PRODUCED AND IS SYSTEMATICALLY RELATIONAL AND HETEROGENEOUS. WILL THE COMMITTEE RECOMMEND JOINT APPOINTMENTS OR A UNIFIED DEPARTMENT? WHY? SUPPORT YOUR ANSWER WITH THE LITERATURE.

After reviewing literature on both joint appointments and unified departments, several advantages to each were identified. In order to capitalize on the advantages of both structures the committee will recommend a paradigm shift in structure that would be a combination of the best aspects of both a joint and unified department for the Black Studies Program. The advantages of this structure would be a more focused, creative, homogeneous, cohesive, effective, global and goal oriented, interdisciplinary program. Harvard University's Afro-American Studies program would be an example of an interdisciplinary program. Meaning, that it offers "training of special interest to those considering careers in such diverse fields as education, journalism, law, business management, city planning, government, politics, foreign service, psychology, medicine, creative writing, public relations, performing arts, or social work." [Harvard University's Department of Afro-American Studies Catalog].

Furthermore, in the past, most students have chosen their Afro-American Studies, in conjunction with another field of study. In addition, Kwame Anthony Appiah, Director of Undergraduate Studies at Harvard University thinks that "the heart of African-American Studies lies in the intersection of history and literature, on the humanistic side, and sociology and economics in the social sciences." [E-mail message] His department consists of highly respected African-American scholars in their fields such as: Henry Louis Gates, Jr., Cornel West, and William Julius Wilson, to name a few. According to K. Anthony Appiah these scholars are capable of familiarizing their students with "leading issues in the politics, economics, and sociology of race."

QUESTION 10: HOW WILL THE COMMITTEE BUILD SUPPORT FOR THE CURRICULUM?

One of the most pressing issues facing higher education today is the role of colleges and universities in enabling minorities to share fully in the best experience that American society can offer" [Ostar, 1988, p. iv]. We are "multiculturialists" who believe that a Black Studies program at the university will encourage minorities to attend the university and will also inform the current student body of the contributions made by this culture. The implementation of a Black Studies program will be a proactive step in anticipating the needs of our future students. According to Haworth and Conrad [1996], one out of three 15-24 year olds were expected to be a member of a minority group. In order to promote the addition of a Black Studies program, we will need to gain political power within the university. There is a need for the university to address diversity issues and courses. The need for program diversity would be addressed with the implementation of A Black Studies Program. The need for the program must be communicated to all stakeholders at the university, especially to administrators, faculty and students.

By definition, "The curriculum is an intentional design for learning negotiated by faculty in light of their specialized knowledge and in the context of social expectations and students' needs" [Toombs & Tierney, 1996, p. 334]. The committee will begin to build support for the Black Studies program curriculum by meeting with members of all academic departments [Havelock, 1971]. In an effort to build a coalition among the influential faculty and gain their support, we will inform them of the advantages of a Black Studies program [Easton, 1995]. A preliminary subcommittee made up of administrative department representatives, faculty and students can be formed to discuss the wants and needs of the departments with respect to the Black Studies program. The subcommittee can then present the proposed Black Studies curriculum to the curriculum committee. The members of the curriculum committee would be elected individuals representing each department. We will encourage "opinion leaders" who support our program to seek seats on the curriculum committee. Opinion leaders, "those persons or institutions to whom others turn for advice", are credible sources of information [Lindquist, 1996, p. 637]. Our committee will encourage them to act as a liaison to support the Black Studies program. A public campaign for student support for the program will help us make those in charge take notice and take action. "The attitudes of white students are insensitive because of the way they are being taught, or not taught, about American race relations and race history" [Feagin, 1989, p. 13]. Multicultural education will help students "...develop the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to participate in reflective civic action..."[Banks, 1991, p. 272]. Students must be taught to interpret the past and the present and to identify their own ideologies and assumptions [Banks, 1991]. Students must be made aware of this need and be inspired to make a positive change in today's university by supporting the Black Studies program. A survey of students can stimulate student interest and provide documentation of students' support for the Black Studies program. We will advertise in the university paper, call and e-mail information about the new program to the academic community. Communication of program information is a vital part of efforts to gain support for the program. If students respond to the lack of diversity and the need to add a Black Studies program, the university has a responsibility to address their concerns in this matter.

We need to nurture faculty committee chairpersons and deans who can act as "sympathetic gatekeepers, people or groups to put the demand on the authorities' agenda" concerning the demand for our new program [Lindquist, 1996, p. 641]. They must be persistent, influential sponsors of our program. The committee will continue to act as liaison among the administration, faculty and students, keeping them informed of the status and progress of our efforts. If we adhere to the following suggestions, our odds of successfully implementing our program will be increased.

- program goals must remain realistic.
- professional development for faculty to raise awareness is vital.
- pilot program will be continually assessed and revised.
- reward participating faculty
- recruit innovative faculty
- adequate and predictable funding and staff
- develop an assessment timetable

[Civian, Arnold, Gamson, Kanter, London, 1996, p. 658-659]

We will inform the administration of the benefits a Black Studies program may have for the university and make them aware that "...educated African -Americans and Hispanics will be critical to the economic well-being of the country in the century ahead" [Harvey, 1996, p. 352]. As educational leaders, we will stress that it is the university's duty to educate the administrators, faculty and students.

Potential outcomes:

- More students will be attracted to the university
- The university will be seen as a more diverse learning community
- The university is meeting the needs of today's students.

Implementation costs that are not addressed, and/or, are perceived to be too high are major reasons for a program to be rejected. Implementation funding issues in the form of reallocating faculty and facilities must be discussed and resolved to the satisfaction of all.

Our goal is to influence the university through a coordinated effort of concurrent organizational, faculty and curriculum developments. Faculty have a prominent role in making policies and decisions. They are intelligent, highly educated people who are qualified to have opinions on matters that affect them, their department and the institution [Bowen, Schuster, 1986]. We need to ensure that we gain the support of these decision-makers. The Association of American Colleges (AAC) has identified faculty support as vital to successful curriculum improvements [Sell, Lounsberry, 1996]. Gaff [1991] concluded:

> "Faculty development is not simply something "nice" to do. The evidence indicates that it is a very important strategy for strengthening general education by changing a curriculum, by

> improving the nature of teaching and learning within courses, and by keeping the focus on the people at the heart of the enterprise--students and faculty members. Simultaneously, it helps to increase the quality of education for students, to vitalize the institution, and to renew the faculty. As such, it is in everyone's self-interest to operate a substantial program that supports the professional growth of the faculty as teacher of general education" [p.120].

As members of our preliminary subcommittee, faculty will be involved in the process of designing and implementing new curricula. Faculty may then consider the creation and implementation of the Black Studies program to be intellectually stimulating and professionally satisfying instead of something that is being forced upon them. The university can support faculty by giving them release time and faculty development opportunities as well as public recognition for their efforts in implementing the program. Faculty motivation is important. When our program is approved we do not want to have our courses taught by unenthusiastic faculty or inexperienced graduate students [Civian, Arnold, Gamson, Knater, London, 1996].

To gain support for our program we will institute a campaign that will inform and maintain communication among all relevant parties. We will continue to build alliances, encourage faculty development, and positive attitudes about the Black Studies program. With the help of members of the Association for the Study of Afro-American Life and History, we will continue to strengthen our efforts to articulate the need for this program in the community [Gaff, 1996]. Banks [1991] states:

> "Students must become critical consumers of knowledge as well as knowledge producers if they are to acquire the understandings and skills needed to function in the complex and diverse world of tomorrow. Only a broad and liberal multicultural education can prepare them for that world" [p. 283].

The Black Studies program can equip our students with the needed information to meet the diverse challenges they will face in today's world. This collaborative effort among administration, faculty and students will bring about a program that is relevant to today's world and meets the demands of today's more diverse student population.

QUESTION 11: HOW AND IN WHAT CAPACITIES WILL THE COMMITTEE SEEK OUT THE EXPERTISE OF MOLEFI KETE ASANTE, WILLIAM JULIUS WILSON, CORNEL WEST AND HENRY LOUIS GATES?

The committee will seek the advice of these specialists in leading black studies programs to assist in the development of the curriculum and request that they serve as members of the advisory board and advocate the Mary McLeod Black Studies Program

QUESTION 12: THE COMMITTEE WANTS THE PROGRAM ON CD-ROM, WITH PLANS TO EVENTUALLY DO THE WORK ONLINE, ON DISK, AND IN PRINT. ALSO INCLUDE THE SETTING UP FOR THE PROGRAM AND LINK OF A WEB PAGE. ADDRESS THIS IN YOUR PRESENTATION AND IN THE WRITTEN DOCUMENT SUBMITTED BY YOUR TEAM.

The team consulted specialists at Johnson and Wales University on how to create the Black Studies Program on CD-ROM and how to develop a web site. The web site representing this program is included in the video presentation of this paper.

LESSON LEARNED

1. The diversity of the team members contributed significantly to the learning experience and final products (ethnicity, gender, experience).
2. We discovered, after the fact, that we asked too many questions of these busy leaders and we did not develop a brief question path. Our suggestion is to develop a brief question path of approximately five questions.
3. We discovered many similarities and differences in how the various institutions use information technology to support the various Black Studies programs.

4. The extended use of collaborative communication software programs would have made the communication process among the team members more efficient.

REFLECTIONS

In spite of some of the possible inhibiting factors that might have affected this program proposal, the team of students and the professor were satisfied with its outcome. The development of the supporting web site, gave the program proposal the technological edge that it needed if it was to be competitive with similar programs. The ultimate goal of this project would be to teach the values that were written in Mary McLeod Bethune's poem.

I leave you love.
I leave you hope.
I leave you the challenge
of developing confidence
in one another
I leave you respect
for the use of power.
I leave you faith.
I leave you racial dignity.
Mary McLeod Bethune

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COMPUTER SIMULATION AND INTERACTIVE LEARNING IN SYMBOLIC LOGIC CLASSROOM

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Abstract

In symbolic logic, one needs to learn an artificial language, the language of first-order logic. The precision and the lack of ambiguity of this language are essential to the study of reasoning and deduction. The greatest challenge that students encounter in learning the language is the translation between their native language and the language of first-order logic. This is due to the contrasting nature of two languages and the lack of environment where the language of first-order logic is used. An earlier paper [1] has introduced a computer visual program that provides an environment where the language of first-order logic can be used. In this paper, we study the case where computer simulation and students interaction with computers can help students become skilled in translations between English and the language of first-order logic.

INTRODUCTION

All rational inquiry depends on logic which is the ability of people to reason correctly. In a symbolic logic course, students study the principles of rationality and the techniques by which they can distinguish valid argumentation from invalid argumentation. In other words, they learn what makes one claim follow from accepted premises while some other claim does not. To study logic, students need to learn a new language, the language of first-order logic (FOL) whose absolute clarity, rigor, and lack of ambiguity are essential to the study of reasoning and deduction. The language is used every day by mathematicians, philosophers, computer scientists, linguists, and practitioners of artificial intelligence. Learning the language of first-order logic teaches us not only the laws of logic it supports but also a great deal about our own language, especially the subtlety and ambiguity of our language. Translation between English and the language of first-order logic has always been difficult, and the ability to translate correctly is an important measure of students' success in a logic course. The difficulty in translation is mainly due to the contrasting nature of two languages. While English is rich, flexible and full of subtleties, the language of first-order logic is simple, precise but may be awkwardly long when it tries to express a simple sentence in English. In addition, students do not see an environment where the language of first-order logic is used and the laws of logic apply, which makes it difficult for students to master the language. I have discussed in [1] a computer visual program Tarski's World which provides a simple environment in which the language of first-order logic can be used in many of the ways that we use our native language. In this paper, I will discuss the case where well-designed exercises in computer simulation can help students improve their translation skills. Student interaction with computers such as evaluating sentences, building "worlds", and playing games (challenging computer's claim) will be discussed. I will refer to the language of first-order logic as FOL in the rest of the paper.

The computer visual program is created by the Center for the Study of Language and Information at Stanford University. It is a computer simulation of an environment where laws of logic govern and FOL is used to communicate. When the program is run, three windows will appear in the screen: a "World window", a "Sentence window", and a "Keyboard window".

The World window is a computer simulation of an environment where the laws of logic apply. The sizes, shapes and the relations among objects in this world can be described by sentences in FOL which will appear in the Sentence window. The Keyboard window provides a convenient way to enter a sentence.

The program is extremely user's friendly. A student may open a built-in world in the program, and a built-in sentence file, and evaluate the truth value of each sentence in the given world. After the evaluation, the computer can verify their answers. If student's answer is different from that of computer's, he can play a Henkin-Hintikka game with the computer. In the game the computer and player challenge each other's claim by breaking down the sentence into components until the truth value of the component is obvious. The process of playing the game effectively identifies the mistake that student made. In addition to checking sentences against world, new worlds may be constructed so as to conform with a given set of sentences. The program can also be used very effectively to demonstrate the invalidity of arguments by building a world that refute them.

LEARNING THE LANGUAGE BY USING THE LANGUAGE

The difficulty in translation between English and FOL is partly due to the way FOL has been taught in logic. There are two ways to learn a second language. One is to learn how to translate sentences in new language to and from sentences of our native language. The other way is to learn by using the language directly. In teaching logic, the translation has been the dominate method. The translation approach forces students to be sensitive to the subtlety of English from the very beginning. While this is useful and eventually necessary, it is premature to do so when students just start learning FOL. Students might mistake the subtlety of their native language as the subtlety of FOL. Correct translation involves finding a sentence whose meaning approximates, as closely as possible, the meaning of the sentence being translated. To do this well, a translator must be fluent in both languages. With the help of computer visual program, we adopted the approach that students should be familiar with FOL before they start the translation: students will be given many opportunities to practice FOL, including using the language to describe a world, writing equivalent sentences, and building worlds where certain set of sentences are simultaneously true. Only after students are familiar with FOL's grammar and structure, do we start the translation exercises. The result of this approach is very impressive, and its effectiveness is well demonstrated by the case where students need to translate English sentence with ambiguous meanings.

English is rift with ambiguities, whereas the expression of first-order language are unambiguous. When translating an ambiguous sentence in English to FOL, one needs to identify several different interpretations and to choose one among many possible interpretations in deciding on an appropriate translation. This task has traditionally been one of the most challenging one that students face in translation. For example, given the premises:

All that glitter is not gold.
This ring glitters.

We ask students if we can reach the conclusion that

This ring is not gold.

Before students learn FOL, their answers are overwhelmingly YES. A few may notice the ambiguity in the first sentence, but they have trouble to present the idea. The reason is simple: trying to use the same language to clarify the ambiguity in the language is difficult. However, after students become fluent in FOL, they immediately realize that the first sentence can be translated into two different sentences in FOL:

$$\forall x(\text{Glitter}(x) \rightarrow \neg\text{Gold}(x))$$
$$\neg\forall x(\text{Glitter}(x) \rightarrow \text{Gold}(x))$$

The first translation says "for all x, if x glitters, then x is not gold". Under this interpretation, the conclusion *This ring is not gold* is valid. The second translation can be interpreted as "it is not the case that whenever x glitters, then it is gold". Under this interpretation, the conclusion is not valid. Because of students' familiarity with FOL's absolute clarity and simplicity, they are able to identify the two interpretations which were not clear to them before. For those who sensed the ambiguity in the sentence and could not phrase it properly, FOL becomes their most effective tool. Rather than being afraid of the ambiguous sentences, students are eager to use FOL to express numerous interpretations of ambiguous sentences. What makes this possible is the training and the practice of FOL that students has in FOL with the computer simulation.

The extensive practice of FOL has also achieved an unexpected goal -- students' enthusiasm about the formal proofs. A proof is a step-by-step demonstration that a conclusion follows from some premises. The way a proof works is by establishing a series of intermediate conclusions, each of which is an obvious consequence of the original premises and the intermediate conclusions previously established. There are two kinds of proofs: informal proofs and formal proofs. An informal proof is used by mathematicians every day. It is stated in one's native language and is usually more free-wheeling, leaving out the more obvious steps. A formal proof, by contrast, employs a fixed set of rules and a highly stylized method of presentation. Because of its rigid style the formal proof of a simple statement can be very long and complicated. Constructing a formal proof can be extremely difficult even when the informal proof is known. For example, the following is a formal proof of ¬P∨¬Q implies ¬(P∧Q) in the Fitch-style system:

```
| 1. ¬P ∨ ¬Q
| | 2. P ∧ Q
| | | 3. ¬P
| | | 4. P                  ∧ Elim: 2
| | | 5. P ∧ ¬P             ∧ Intro: 4, 3
| | | 6. ¬Q
| | | 7. Q                  ∧ Elim: 2
| | | | 8. ¬(P ∧ ¬P)
| | | | 9. Q ∧ ¬Q           ∧ Intro: 7, 6
| | | 10. ¬¬(P ∧ ¬P)        ¬ Intro: 8–9
| | | 11. P ∧ ¬P            ¬ Elim: 10
| | 12. P ∧ ¬P              ∨ Elim: 1, 3–5, 6–11
| 13. ¬(P ∧ Q)              ¬ Intro: 2–12
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The difference between an informal proof and a formal proof is not one of rigor, but of style. Formal proofs have the advantage that they display the logical structure of proofs in forms that can be mechanically checked or can even be written by machines (a form of artificial intelligence). Our computer simulation, however, did not provide any direct hint on how to write a formal proof, and we did not expect much help in teaching formal proof from the program. But learning FOL is an easy and effective way to demystify any formal works including formal proofs. The same philosophy of rigor and precision that is involved in designing both FOL and formal proofs. Because of students' fluency in FOL they show appreciation for and preference to formal proofs, while they used to try everything to avoid them. The practice and training in FOL enable students to appreciate and to take advantage of the clarity, structure, and rigor of any logical statements, which is exactly what a formal proof is. They feel that formal proofs allow them to say exactly what they want to say with no chance of being misinterpreted, which is exactly our goal to teach formal proofs.

IDENTIFYING CONVERSATIONAL IMPLICATURE BY GAME PLAYING

In translating from English to FOL, there are many cases which pose difficulties. One of them is the conversational implicature. For example, *Tom is happy unless Mary is happy* should be translated to:

¬(Mary)→Happy(Tom)

in FOL. This means *if Mary is not happy, then Tom is happy*. But many students think that the meaning of this English sentence would be more accurately captured by a biconditional claim:

¬(Mary)↔Happy(Tom).

This means *Mary is unhappy if and only if Tom is happy*. The reason that this seems natural is that when we assert the English sentence, there in some implication that if Mary is happy, then Tom is not. To resolve cases like this, it is very important for students to distinguish between the truth conditions of a sentence, and the other things that in some sense follow from the assertion of the sentence. To take an obvious example, if someone says that "I come from the United States", then we may assume that the speaker speaks and understands English. However, this is not part of what speaker said, but part of what can be inferred from his words. The truth or falsity of his sentence has nothing to do with his linguistic abilities.

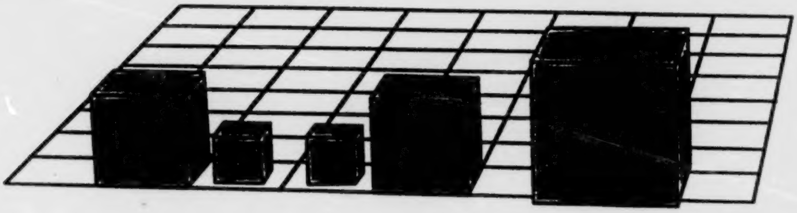
The philosopher H.P. Grice developed a theory of what he called *conversational implicature* to help to sort out the genuine truth conditions of a sentence from other conclusions we may draw from its assertion. These other conclusions are what Grice called "implicatures". Suppose we have an English sentence S that someone asserts, and we are trying to decide whether a particular conclusion we draw is part of the meaning of S, or one of its implicatures. Grice pointed out that if the conclusion is part of the meaning, then it cannot be "canceled" by some further elaboration by the speaker. For example, the conclusion that *Kate is home* is part of the meaning of an assertion that *Mike and Kate are home*, so we cannot cancel this conclusion by saying *Mike and Kate are home, but Kate is not home*. We would be contradicting ourselves. Contrast this with the speaker who said *I am from the United States.* Here if he had gone to say, *but I only speak French,* then the suggestion that the speaker understands and speaks English is effectively canceled. A more illuminating use of Grice's cancelability test concerns the expression *either...or....* Suppose we are in a restaurant and a waiter says *You can have either soup or salad,* there is a strong implicature that you cannot have both. But it is clear that this is just an implicature, since the waiter could, without contradicting himself, go on to say *And you can have both, if you want.*

Grice's method is a very powerful tool in distinguish the true meaning from the conversational implicatures when the sentence is written in English. However, students still have difficulty to identify conversational implicatures if the sentence is written in FOL. For the ability to find the right elaboration depends on students' ability in the language, and students are still in the process of mastering FOL and have trouble to use FOL as fluently as they do with their native language.

For example, consider the sentence

$$\forall x \forall y((\mathrm{Cube}(x) \wedge \mathrm{Cube}(y)) \rightarrow (\mathrm{LeftOf}(x,y) \vee \mathrm{RightOf}(x,y)))$$

in FOL. When being translated to English, it verbally says, for all x, and for all y, if x and y are both cubes, then x is left of y or y is left of x. Suppose that we are evaluating this sentence in a world with five cubes lined up in the front row.



Most students would think that the sentence is true in the world, since one natural way to read this sentence is as claiming that every cube is to the left or right of every other cube. But there is a conversational implicature in this way of speaking, one that is very misleading. It suggests that *x* and *y* are distinct cubes, but this is not part of the claim made by the first-order sentence. In fact, if x and y are the same object, then our sentence is false in the world with five cubes lined up in the front row, as it must be in any world that contains at least one cube.

Although it is difficult for students to identify the above conversational implicature, we believe it is very important for them to do so through interactive learning. This is how it works. Using the evaluation function of the software, a student believing the sentence is true in the above world will realize that computer thinks otherwise, (and the computer is never wrong!) He will go ahead to play the game with the computer. Knowing that he will lose the game, he is expecting to learn where his reasoning goes wrong in the process of playing game.

The computer will start by saying, if you think the sentence is true, then do you agree that so is the following instance of it when we use *b* to name our cube x:

$$\forall y((\mathrm{Cube}(b)\wedge \mathrm{Cube}(y))\rightarrow(\mathrm{LeftOf}(b,y)\vee \mathrm{RightOf}(b,y))).$$

The student agrees, since x can be any object, it certainly can be *b*. To move to the next level, the computer will say, this in turn is a universal claim, and so must also be true of the object *b*. Do you agree? The student agrees. But then when computer substitutes *b* in for y, we get a sentence

$$(\mathrm{Cube}(b)\wedge \mathrm{Cube}(b))\rightarrow(\mathrm{LeftOf}(b,b)\vee \mathrm{RightOf}(b,b))$$

Which is obviously false, since b is neither left of nor right of itself. Student loses the game to the computer, but now he understands the assumption that $x\neq y$ is a conversational implicature. To make sure that he really understands the concepts, we now ask him what if he really wants to express the claim that every cube is to the left or right of every other cube, he should come up with:

$$\forall x\forall y((\mathrm{Cube}(x)\wedge \mathrm{Cube}(y)\wedge x\neq y)\rightarrow(\mathrm{LeftOf}(x,y)\vee \mathrm{RightOf}(x,y)))$$

which is true in the world with five cubes lined up in the front row. If he does not come with the right sentence, his sentence will be false in the given world, and he can again find out where it goes wrong by playing the game.

TRANSLATION BY INTERACTIVE LEARNING

One thing that makes the translation from English to FOL difficult is the sparsity of primitive concepts in FOL. While this sparsity makes the language easy to learn, it also means that there are frequently no very natural ways of saying what we want to say. A simple sentence in English may need to be expressed by a long and complicated sentence in FOL. For example, to translate *Every dodecahedron is the same size as some cube,* we would come up with

$$\forall x(\mathrm{Dodec}(x)\rightarrow\exists y(\mathrm{Cube}(y)\wedge((\mathrm{Large}(x)\wedge \mathrm{Large}(y))\vee(\mathrm{Medium}(x)\wedge \mathrm{Medium}(y))\vee(\mathrm{Small}(x)\wedge \mathrm{Small}(y))).$$

To translate the sentence that *There are exactly two cubes*, we would come up with

$$\exists b\exists c(\mathrm{Cube}(b)\wedge \mathrm{Cube}(c)\wedge(\forall x(\mathrm{Cube}(x)\rightarrow(x=b\vee x=c))).$$

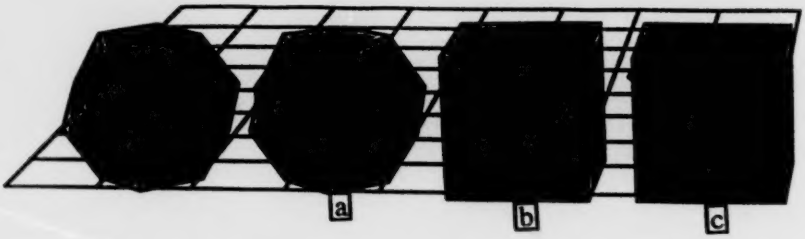
Because in logic we need to be clear that there exist two cubes, and these are the only two cubes.

We do not expect students to be able to write a correct translation in their first try. As a matter of fact, we think it is more important for students to learn logic concepts through interaction than getting the correct translation. This example shows how we design the exercises for students to learn interactively.

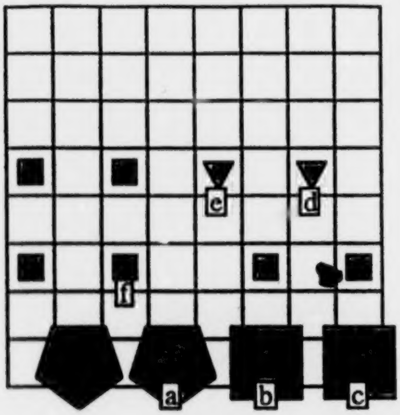
Let's look at an example where students need to translate the following two sentences into FOL: *The only large cubes are b and c*; and *At most b and c are large cubes*. There is a significant difference between these two sentences. The second sentence does not imply that b and c are large cubes, while the first sentence does. However, students tend to translate them into the same sentence in FOL. This is hardly surprising since they are still leaning the language. We would design the exercise by asking them to evaluate their translations in the following three worlds:

(in the first world, some objects are hidden, so we also provide a projecting view)

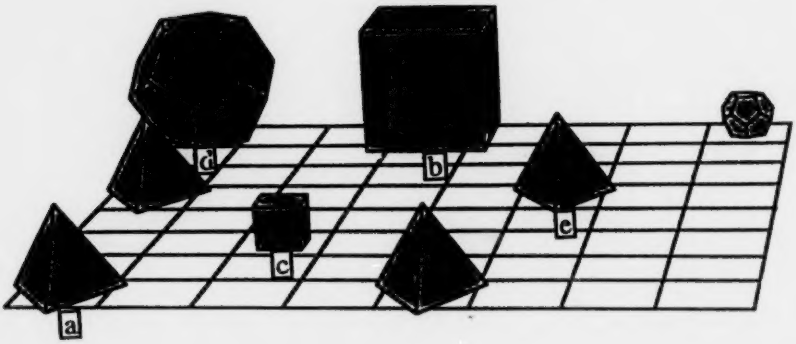
World 1.



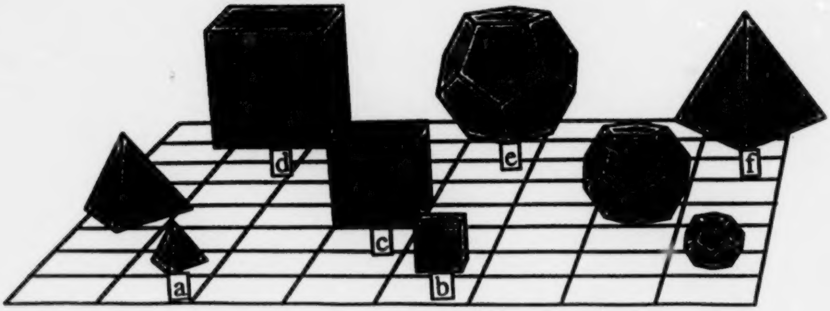
World 1. (Projecting view)



World 2.



World 3.



We then tell them the first sentence is true only in world 1, and the second sentence is true only in world 1 and 2. The design of world 1, 2, and 3 anticipates the mistakes that students might make and is aimed at clarifying the distinction between two sentences.

Similarly, when ask students to translate sentence such as *Every cube in back of a dodecahedron is also smaller than it*, wet tell them the correct translation will be true in the first two worlds and will be false in the last world. And if their translations fail to do so, they can always play the game to find out why.

CONCLUSION

Learning FOL help to demystify the formal works and teach logic concepts. But more importantly, it will teach us a great deal about our own language. FOL, while very simple, incorporates in a clean way some of the important features of human languages. This helps make these features much more transparent. Also, as we attempt to translate English sentences in FOL we will also gain an appreciation of the great subtlety that resides in English, subtlety that cannot be captured in FOL or similar languages. Finally, we wil gain an awareness of the enormous ambiguity present in almost every English sentence, ambiguity which somehow does not prevent us from understanding each other in most situation. The computer visual program and its ability to interact with students in teaching FOL allow us to achieve the above goals.

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CYBORGIAN LEARNING:
A CASE STUDY APPROACH FOR BUSINESS SPEAKING

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Abstract

This paper argues that, with the continuing emphasis on flexible and distance modes of learning, trainers in speech communication are challenged to invent new ways to help learners to become better speakers. A case study of Rupert Murdoch, international media mogul and business man, has been developed to explore effective speech presentations. The paper examines the learning approach of the Murdoch case study, showing how the speaking model provided by Murdoch is a useful resource for learning how to be an effective presenter. The case study is presented in the multimedia mode. The medium of the CD-ROM allows access to analysis of both verbal and non-verbal aspects of his presentation. The paper suggests that the multi-media format facilitates access to video, photographs, newspaper texts, and interactive learning strategies which guide the speaker to both recognise effective strategies and prepare them to incorporate these strategies into their own presentations.[1]

INTRODUCTION

Australia, like many other countries throughout the world, is facing increasing challenges to its traditional higher education sector. Mounting evidence from a number of task forces and committees commissioned by government bodies and private enterprise has suggested that it is not only desirable to open up the education and training sector to a range of commercial training providers, but also to shift the focus of education and training from teaching to learning [Report of the Task Force on Distance Education, 1992; National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1994; Karpin, 1995; Atkinson, Conboy, & Atkinson, 1996]. Indeed, the Industry Task Force on Management and Leadership Skills [Karpin, 1995] recently produced a report for the Australian government in which they asserted that unless higher education in Australia becomes attuned to business needs for communication skills, amongst others, and sensitive to the interests and needs of learners, Australia would be unable to compete in the global marketplace. Additionally, with growing class sizes and diminishing resources for sectors such as undergraduate education, the traditional intensive face-to-face mode of teaching is becoming increasingly unviable. What all this amounts to is the imperative for trainers in speech communication to invent new ways to help learners to become better speakers. This paper describes one such attempt to invent the opportunity for learning about effective speech communication through the use of a case study of business leader Rupert Murdoch. The case study has been developed as a CD-ROM, using a range of resources such as video, speech text, photographs, newspaper cuttings, profiles, and journal articles.

COMMUNICATION DESIGN AND THE NEW TECHNOLOGIES

The new technologies have traditionally been owned by the minds and hearts of technicians. However, recently, communication researchers have argued for the centrality of communication in the design and use of these technologies. It is very interesting to note, for example, the origins of the word technology itself. It is constituted from two Greek terms techne meaning art or craft and logos meaning word or speech [Biocca, 1993, p.65]. These origins suggest that if history had taken another path, we would be focusing more keenly on improving the 'art and craft of making signs, words, speech' [p.65]. Clearly, it is time for those involved in communication theory and practice to pay attention to these technologies for their capacities to provide new realities for learners - virtual realities.

What does all this mean for the speech communication trainer? It suggests, firstly, that the new technologies offer one way to deliver a range of learning opportunities for students and adult learners which is both satisfying and stimulating [Atkinson, Conboy, & Atkinson, 1996, quoted in Baldwin, 1997, p.43], while simultaneously fitting with the focus on autonomy and life long learning. Research on multi-media and CD-ROM interactive disks further suggests that 'integrated sound, motion, image and text create a rich new learning environment awash with possibility and a clear potential to increase student involvement in the learning process' [p.44]. Secondly, it gives direction for what might be suitable material for learning about speech communication. While much American scholarship has focused on political persuaders as the focus of rhetorical analysis and speech communication training, there is clearly an important need for business managers to learn how to communicate effectively, so that they can provide leadership which shapes the practices of employees in desirable ways.

Traditional training in speech communication has relied on these political exemplars to direct practice. However, after some years working in a Business Faculty, it has become apparent to us that identification with the exemplars offered is a critical element of learning. Therefore, in order to learn about effective presentations, it is critical, not only to use the text of political speeches, as traditional rhetorical analysis does, but also to draw on understandings of the sign systems available to readers of a situation. Therefore, both sound and image become central to such an analysis. Business presentations have their own semiotic codes and their own contextual limits. Using business speakers who can be observed and heard, as well as responded to at a verbal level, is critical to learning about good business practice.

Skills training has been the other most common way to approach developing executive speakers. Indeed, the virtual absence of communication subjects in MBA programs is testament to the lack of awareness among management educators that communication is about more than skill. This has certainly recently been realised with the recognition of the role of soft skills in management [Karpin, 1995]. Skills training is undoubtedly an important dimension of any good training, but contextualisation and strategic orientation are critical as well. While skills training focuses on particular communication events in isolation, and gives attention to micro strategies for effective persuasion, rhetorical approaches can be more encompassing. The challenge is to bring skills approaches and rhetorical approaches together.

USING THE CASE STUDY TO MODEL A POWERFUL [STRATEGIC] PRESENTATION

In formulating general principles, rhetoricians since Aristotle have derived insights about how to persuade from observing experienced persuaders at work [Simons, 1986, p27]. However, what is needed to help presenters is access to a particular problem or situation coupled with a framework for analysing that situation and developing strategies. The case study provides a satisfying learning opportunity for several reasons:

1. It combines two essentials of learning - realism and participation [Schmidt & Lipstreu, 1975, p.2]. As more and more learners take up the challenge of the philosophy of life long learning, the attention of educators must be on finding ways to link personal experience and theoretical knowledge.
2. A case study provides opportunity for role-playing - case situations demand that readers/viewers 'think like' those who are the models in the case. Recognising the constraints of the business context and the hard realities of business practice encourage behaviours similar to those being modelled.
3. The case approach can consequently offer experiences which encourage learners 'to modify or get rid of their prejudices because they must take into account the different views expressed' [Schmidt & Lipstreu, 1975, p.2]. This is particularly relevant for management development, because researchers have identified the failure of Australian business managers to value 'difference' as a key weakness in

their practice. It limits their ability to manage in a global economy. [Barraclough &Co., 1995]

4. The case study encourages analytical insight by providing opportunities for recognition of problems and the development of diagnostic responses [Kreps, 1990, p.289]. Critical analytical skills facilitate sharp strategic responses.
5. The case study methodology draws on a wide range of sources to provide this insight. One speech by a presenter can be contextualised through newspaper articles, academic articles, photographs, and analysis of the speech by experts in the field of communication. All this information produces the potential for increased sensitivity and awareness of the complexity of communication processes.
6. Finally, the case study demands attention to the link between knowledge and skills (Kreps, 1990, p.285-292). Learners using case studies not only have to recognise problems, but also can interactively, whether with other participants or through communication technology, devise ways to overcome the problem.

A case study on CD-ROM can bring real life examples of business situations to the classroom or office. Learners can view, stop the speech, read the speech text, analyse its difficulties, and consider options. However, they can also take the time to explore the context in which such a presentation was delivered. As an organisational activity, the speech is no longer viewed in isolation. The learners can then use the model behaviours exemplified on the CD-ROM, attempting to mirror and practice good skills.

Below is a table which demonstrates the strengths of each of the approaches discussed. Clearly, however, it is not enough to teach skills or to focus on analytical ability. The case study methodology can bring together the best of both traditional approaches.

TABLE 1

	Rhetorical approach	Skills-based approach	Case study approach
Features	Sensitivity to language Focus on the context of the particular speech situation	Focus on technical skills, focus on communication as an isolated symbolic and behavioural event	Combines rhetorical and technical- recognises communication as part of the totality of social relations and processes
Outcomes	Enhances rhetorical sensitivity Emphasises the importance of strategy and style	Good technical / presentational skills	Allows interplay of knowledge of rhetorical sensitivity and technical expertise
Suitable audiences	For executive presenters and advanced level learners	For training on micro behaviours to all levels	For executive presenters and advanced level learners

CHOOSING THE CASE

The choice of a business speech by international media mogul, Rupert Murdoch, provides a real-life exemplar of a powerful presentation. In the CD-ROM case study, this is coupled with a succinct rhetorical formula which allows the learners to analyse and understand the strategies which contribute to Murdoch's speaking success in this particular situation. Learner participation is involved in the interaction with the Murdoch material, and in finding the answers to the questions posed in the light of the rhetorical framework chosen.

Murdoch's presentation is positioned within its broader social and cultural context by the provision of a profile of Murdoch, articles which have been written about him, and newspaper articles which relate to high points of his career. Therefore, the skill and strategic moves of Murdoch's arguments can be analysed within the important context of his audience and social setting. This is in keeping with the suggestion that executives who manage communication need to develop their theoretical perspectives so that they understand communication to be 'not an isolated activity, symbolic or behavioural, but rather part of the totality of social relations and processes' [Kersten, 1986, p. 771]. The choice of such an internationally significant figure has the added advantage of providing opportunities to recognise the complexities of adapting to different audiences across a multiplicity of international settings. This feature of the case study is particularly important in an age of global communication.

Rupert Murdoch, as the CEO of *Newscorp*, is an eminently suitable emblem of business success. He represents a valuable find as an Australian example of a powerfully strategic presentation. Nonetheless, those who remember Wapping or, more recently, *Newscorp*'s legal tax avoidance arrangements [Chenoweth & Burke, 1998, p. 1] might question the choice of this exemplar. It is here that the case study can develop analytical skills, and ask the learner to consider the ethical question 'Is Murdoch a villain or a visionary'?

The speech revolves around Murdoch's vision for the role of technology in a future and better world, and his construction of himself as the visionary leader who can make it possible. As a speaker to a knowledgeable audience, he, or his speech writers, realise that he must open both sides of the argument to be truly persuasive. He carefully elaborates the risks involved in this change, but emphasises the possibilities of a brighter future. He strategically positions his own media empire, *Newscorp*, as the driver of that change. This is particularly important when addressing *The Centre for Independent Studies*, a think tank of the intellectuals and leaders of Australian policy making. Of course, for some members of his world audience, this very capacity to control world ideas through his media empire is of concern. This case study is a rich learning experience because it provides the potential for multiple frameworks and reference points for both micro and macro perspectives.

USING A RHETORICAL FRAME TO FOCUS ANALYSIS

One way of capturing the pull and tug of these conflicting pressures on persuaders is through an analytic framework used in the field of speech communication known as the requirements-problems-strategies approach [Simons, 1986. p.89]. It is this succinct rhetorical formula of Herbert Simons which has been used in the CD/ROM to provide a frame for analysing Murdoch's strategic approach. The learner is helped to identify the requirements and problems encountered by Murdoch in his presentation. For example, he has the requirement of justifying the progress of technology in the 21st century, and the problem of managing the public fear of change, particularly as it relates to the new technologies such as those shaping the media industry. These issues provide important elements of the context whose exposition enriches the case study, as you can see from our list of some of the requirements and concomitant problems that Murdoch faced. The pull and tug of conflicting pressures is shown when the learner explores the ramifications of this list.

TABLE 2

REQUIREMENTS	PROBLEMS
Establish himself as a business leader and industry visionary	Overcome the image that a media leader (often tabloid) might not be worthy of respect or entirely trustworthy
Reach an Australian audience as an Australian speaking for Australians	Overcome the fact that he has abandoned Australian citizenship in preference for American

Justify the progress of technology as a positive force in the 21st century	Manage public fear of change and the perception of dangers that past technologies may have created
Establish himself as an educated man to an educated audience to give credibility to his arguments	Persuade intellectual audience members who may not fully support the strategies of free markets

A variety of strategies could be used to deal with these tensions. However, in designing the multi-media package, four generic strategies were chosen, from the many possible, to lead the learner in an analysis of the Rupert Murdoch case study. These were:

1. Establishing a theme
2. Designing a structure
3. Using language
4. Bringing it to life.

Each of these is developed by drawing on the practices used by Murdoch in his presentation.

The Murdoch case study shows that he has clearly established his theme throughout his speech. He argues that ideas are the new *economic goldmine* and the *engine* that drives the media industry, and he has reinforced this through language and examples. He has developed a clear central idea that media technology is the pathway to a peaceful and free society. His arguments to support this theme and central idea are strongly highlighted throughout the speech as follows:

TABLE 3
MURDOCH'S ARGUMENTS

Proliferation of technology by markets does not mean chaos or control, but prosperity. Thus, free markets do not lead to monopolies but competition. This embraces the principles of classical liberalism as a fundamental part of civilisation
Technological change is advantageous because it can abolish the 'tyranny of distance' (especially relevant to Australia)
The media business is an industry that will lead the world because of its relationship to ideas. It is an industry central to achieving freedom and peace
Successful business is not led by a committee, but by visionary leaders. Murdoch claims this leadership.

The user has the opportunity to select from a range of video examples which illustrate this theme and these arguments. After being introduced to the important tools for preparing and structuring, the learner can identify how these, too, have contributed to Murdoch's successful speech.

The case study allows access to both the verbal and non-verbal aspects of a presentation, much as watching a live presentation in a classroom or attending a corporate function does. The CD-ROM can also effectively outline and show examples of how a speech can be brought to life through humour, stories, and examples as well as non-verbal means. This speech is united by the imagery of ideas as *gold*. There is constant reference to goldmines, and the gold of the mind and of the market. Murdoch also uses stories to his advantage. The story of Lord Northcliffe's success with *The Daily Mail* is entertaining, but also produces a halo effect, allowing the audience to make the comparison of Murdoch's and Northcliffe's visionary exploits. It shows the deftness of Murdoch's language as Northcliffe faces 'bankruptcy or Berkeley Square', and allows the high moment of Northcliffe's declaration 'We've struck a goldmine'. This story even gives Murdoch the opportunity of humour, when he says that he does not wish to be too closely compared to Northcliffe, because 'apart from anything else, he did eventually go mad'. He has already used humour earlier in the speech, by rejecting the rumour that he is a 'madman in authority'.

The learner can see how Murdoch has used erudite references and the language of his speech to meet his requirements and overcome his problems. For example, Murdoch decides to use an argument from authority, but with the intention of rebutting it. He chooses the famous book of George Orwell, *Nineteen Eighty-Four*, and demonstrates that Orwell's vision of technology was flawed. He also shows a wide knowledge of Orwell's work when he quotes an Orwell poem at the end of his speech. This example is an interesting one to a well-read audience, and along with other references to Solzhenitsyn etc, reminds us that Murdoch is an Oxford graduate and a man of considerable cultural capital. This reference supports Murdoch's arguments for the triumph of technology, and also supports his image as an educated leader in the goldmine of ideas.

It is possible to demonstrate a range of language devices simply by selecting short segments of video as samples. Murdoch's description of the labour market as 'the bone in Australia's throat' reveals the bitterness of his political stance on this topic. The use of strong metaphors and other language devices, including the risk of a small quotation of Orwell's poetry by Murdoch, helps the learners to understand how language works to codify power. Orwell's words capture Murdoch's ideal:

No power can disinherit
No bomb that ever burst
Shatters the crystal spirit

He concludes strongly with the following words,' Ladies and gentlemen, in this century of bursting bombs, I like to think that we are doing our part, however humble and mundane, to free that crystal spirit'. Murdoch thus positions the media industry, and himself, as central to the freeing of the human spirit.

The use of video also allows the viewer to assess Murdoch's image, and to consider his use of such elements as body language, or to focus on vocal style, by drawing attention to rises in pitch or emphasis on particular words. For example, when looking at body language, we realise that Murdoch is particularly lifeless in facial expression and gesture, although male power, such as his, will often take itself for granted and not feel the need to use strong body language. He has relied more on the power image of his conservative suit and the strength of his language to carry his message. The credibility which is established by Murdoch's own powerful position, and the excellent use of three of the four strategies we have examined as ingredients of this successful speech, atone for the lack of abilities which can be discovered in 'bringing it to life'. There is little expressiveness in voice and gesture, and the astute viewer even notices the mannerism of 'licking his lips' and, somewhat monotonously, moving the head from side to side as he views the autocue. In this strategy, Murdoch is no Bill Clinton.

Thus, learners can view, stop the speech, read the speech text, analyse its difficulties, and consider options. They can then use the model behaviours exemplified on the CD-ROM, attempting to mirror and practise good skills. However, they can also take the time to explore the context in which such a presentation was delivered.

OBJECTIVES OF THE MURDOCH CASE STUDY

The overarching objective of the multi-media case study package is to help users to plan good presentations. Throughout the package, users are encouraged to take notes, to brainstorm, and to develop a plan for a presentation that they would like to give. They have access to a notebook where they can store all this information, so that it can be loaded down at a later date. After they have completed a range of activities such as developing requirements, establishing problems, and forming strategies to achieve their purpose, they are then encouraged to outline a plan for their own presentation. The modelling and identification process is elaborated by allowing the user to focus on how this situation/case unfolds. It encourages the user to ask - Would I frame the idea in this way? How would I do it better? What images moved me? Why did I respond like that? What non-verbal communication captured my attention? What should I do to achieve the same effect? In this way, the package is designed to help the budding or executive speaker to understand effective strategies and to develop a plan for their own strategic speech presentation.

One of the most important benefits of the case study approach is its ability to bridge the gap between knowledge and skills. It is the intention of the Murdoch case study to particularly work in this way. Planning an effective speech presentation is the desired outcome of working through the rhetorical frame which is used as the organising principle of the Murdoch case study material. Although the CD-ROM has the potential to achieve this goal, it does have the limitation of not being able to provide feedback on effective practice. This is one of the benefits of a face to face approach which cannot yet be duplicated by technology.

CONCLUSION

The traditional approaches of rhetorical analysis and skills or competency training have undoubtedly played an important role in producing good presenters. However, this paper argues that it is in the intersection of the knowledge drawn from skills training and rhetoric, devised as a case study, that learning can be enhanced for both the executive and novice presenter. The case study can bridge that gap between knowledge and skills. However, additionally, we are proposing that a CD-ROM provides a powerful medium for entering the virtual business space. Visual and aural cues can lead the learner into new experiences and new ways of seeing. As a multi-media case study, it aims to bring those performances to life. Cyberspace brings Rupert Murdoch and his ways of thinking and speaking into the classroom or office. It is one attempt to produce what Haraway [1991] has called the cyborgian body.

The evaluation of the effectiveness of this CD-ROM package may help to answer some important research questions: Can academic knowledge about effective communication be successfully mediated by what has traditionally been understood as the depersonalised communication of computer technology? Can the ephemeral nature of technology be translated into powerful performances of the body? For us, the task of evaluation is yet to be completed. We are reminded in approaching such a task, that Winston Churchill, a powerful communication practitioner, would write up to eight drafts of every speech, often working in the bath, where he sat for hours. Undoubtedly, he learned his craft from Aristotle and other reading. However, he also practised conscientiously, recognising the role of voice and body in any effective presentation. This is a 'far cry' from sitting in your office with an interactive multimedia CD-ROM as tutor. Yet, we are told that technology will create a richer, more independent and flexible learning space. Can speakers truly become more powerful presenters through the use of interactive multimedia technology? Communication researchers need to take up that challenge. The invention of new ways to learn about effective presentations will undoubtedly lead to new possibilities for bringing our ideas to life.

ENDNOTES

1. The CD-ROM will be used to demonstrate the richness of the medium for both describing the case and structuring the learning activity.

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INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS COURSES AT A DISTANCE: CHALLENGES AND STRATEGIES

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Abstract

Distance education is becoming increasingly popular as economic forces encourage, and new technologies facilitate, its spread. In a technological and global environment, international educators are faced with a multitude of challenges that have an impact on their curriculum content and mode of delivery. Demographic trends and technological advances are two such challenges. Demographic trends point to increased cultural, racial and ethnic diversification in the United States (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1996). Developing countries now have new opportunities to access knowledge and enhance their human capital. Distance education, particularly televised instruction, is becoming a major presence in higher education, as well as in the business community. Consequently, international business courses and degree programs are increasingly being offered via televised instruction. At the same time, rapid cultural, racial and ethnic diversification in the United States has resulted in a movement to integrate cultural training into the international business curriculum. Interactive televised instruction, in which a classroom or studio is transmitted by an integrated system of video, computer and audio signals to off-campus locations, is currently one of the more utilized forms of distance instruction (Bruce, Peyton, and Batson, 1993; Burke, and Chidambaram, 1996). Several authors have outlined strategies for delivering courses at a distance (Hollenbeck, and Brief, 1987; Nahl, 1993; Rice, and Aydin, 1991; Trevino, and Webster, 1996). This paper will explore the challenges associated with providing cultural education via interactive television. The characteristics of interactive televised instruction and strategies in several countries for promoting cultural education within this media are presented.

INTRODUCTION

The issues that surround distance learning and technology are dramatically altering higher education. One of the most dramatic initiatives from Western Governors Association, which adopted on July, 1996, the establishment of a governing body to establish a virtual university in which students can complete degree programs without ever physically entering the university (Blumenstyk, 1996). This initiative allows schools, libraries, and even private businesses to offer distance education courses throughout the world. At the University of Nebraska, students are completing doctorate degrees in educational administration via computer mediated instruction. This doctorate program, with the exception of summer residency requirements, is provided entirely over the Internet, irrespective of place or time. Students from Guam, Australia, and throughout the United States are pursuing the degree simultaneously (Seagran, and Watwood, 1996).

Distance learning collaborative arrangements are increasing at exponential rates. Twelve higher education institutions have established such a consortium in Pennsylvania (DeLoughry, 1995). Several institutions in Texas, Oklahoma, and New Mexico have formed an educational alliance. In 1997, over 150 accredited colleges and universities have non-traditional bachelor's degree programs available that allow students to spend little or no time physically on the college campus (Green, 1996). Entire degree programs, including graduate studies, are now available for learning from your home or office.

In the business world, the impact of distance learning is essential to success. In 1998, estimates of $12 billion will be spent on online business training. Quality Dynamics, a New York based research firm, predicts that half of all corporate training will be online by the end of this century. Online learning is just-in-time and at the student's convenience. It can be done at the home or in the office, the students are not limited to the offerings of the local schools or businesses. Course can be taken in any subject and from any institution you choose worldwide, but companies are no longer hampered by the costs of sending employees on junkets to get needed training and education.

This new style of learning is not inexpensive, especially if it is designed or tailored for a specific purpose. In general, it is still more expensive for an institution to expand its facilities to meet the distance education technological criteria than to offer the same course using the traditional classroom methods. These programs give greater control to learners. Studies show that using multi-media based training programs results in higher rates of retention (Gordon, 1996; Green, 1997; Newman and Johnson, 1997). The research (Gordon, 1996; Green, 1997; Newman and Johnson, 1997) does not address the retension rates of students that have taken courses via distance education using multi-media based course materials. In a recent study by the OmniTech Consulting Group and Training magazine found that over one-fourth of the people in their survey had access to the Internet and that computer-based training and education distributed online was now a real option for virtually all Fortune 1000 companies (Gordon, 1997).

The benefits seem to outweigh the disadvantages, especially for the learners, who can take classes from faculty or programs without geographic restrictions and as they fit into their tight time schedules. However, there has been some discussion on the merits of distance education from academia. The American Association of University Professors (AAUP) has created a committee to review the consequences of distance learning initiatives for faculty members. The National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) is currently reviewing the impact of distance learning on its accreditation standards. Accrediting bodies in fields such as business, social work, and engineering have worked to incorporate technology based curriculum delivery into their review processes. The American Federation of Teachers (AFT) has been vocally critical of distance learning efforts, asking its members to oppose such technology based programs unless they are sure that standards of quality are being maintained (Blumenstyk, 1996). They have been particularly critical of efforts to create distance learning initiatives at the undergraduate level. Some faculty have raised concerns about job security, others about the lack of face-to-face interaction and loss of learning quality when distance learning technology is used. Others have voiced distress over the direct competition for students and tuition dollars as distance learning programs cross local, state, and national boundaries.

Technology is a major contributor to the dramatic transformation of distance learning. Although the use of technology for distance learning is not new - radio and television have been used effectively for more than forty years - satellites and the Internet are transforming the world into a borderless educational arena, benefiting both previously underserved citizenries and educational entrepreneurs. Although many developing countries still have limited access to these new technologies, major new investments in telecommunications and information systems are going to dramatically improve their access.

Technology is and will increasingly be used to provide remote courses and degrees. A recent study by college computing administrators noted that nearly 24% of classes were being held in computer-equipped classrooms and that 20% of courses were using email for communication (DeLoughry, 1996). The demands for faster communication and the demands for the Internet may have reached critical mass, the demands of the more technological sophisticated students and the ebbing presence of the older professors who lack technological interest and ability, have caused increased use. Information technology has arrived and its impact is being felt in the traditional and non-traditional classrooms around the world.

USES AND PURPOSES

Distance education is used in a variety of settings and for a broad range of purposes. Universities use distance education to increase the number of students who have access to higher education; companies use it to upgrade their worker's skills and keep them abreast of rapidly advancing technologies; individuals use it for their own professional development and to enhance their career opportunities; governments use it to provide on-the-job training to teachers or other workers, to enhance the quality of traditional primary and secondary schooling, and to deliver instruction to remote rural areas that might not otherwise be served.

Various technologies have been used for distance education, but print-based correspondence courses have been and will continue to be, the dominant delivery mechanism in both the developed and the developing worlds. Print is still the cheapest technology, and even if the costs of using high-tech dissemination methods fall below those of print, it will be some time before many countries have adequate infrastructures to support higher technologies.

Within the university setting, some institutions offer only distance education, while others are providing both distance and conventional education. Those that offer only the distance education option are referred to as "open universities," and most are modeled after the United Kingdom's Open University. Mega-universities are large open universities, each of which enrolls more than 100,000 students per year. One of the largest mega-universities in the world are located in China. China alone produces more than 100,000 graduates a year through distance education, with more than half of China's 92,000 engineering and technology graduates having attained their degrees through distance education (Potashnik, Capper, 1998). Although many conventional universities have ventured into the distance education arena, many universities are just now beginning to experiment with the concept, in large part because they are now able to meet the increasing demand for higher education. The operative word with these new comers is caution. These universities are trying the new technologies without proper support for the students, and the faculty members.

Distance education still lacks credibility in many countries, and students taking such courses often experience difficulty in obtaining recognition for their work completed. A preliminary study completed in 1996 comparing the United Kingdom Open University with the conventional universities proved that programs in six of the Open University's 11 programs were awarded excellent ratings (Olson, 1996). The significance of this preliminary study has sparked the question, "Is distance education effective?"
Numerous studies has been conducted assessing the effectiveness of distance education, although studies have not yet been conducted on Internet based training, education and/or on-line communication with students. There has been research on the use of prepackaged computer-based training for adults across a broad range of subject materials. This research has shown that adults who learned at distance on computers learned as well as or better than those who learned in traditional classrooms, and in some cases the former learned both faster and at substantially lower cost than the latter (Capper, 1990).

The quality of some distance education programs and institutions is perceived to be poor, with their deficiencies often attributable to inadequate planning and the use of superficial material delivered in a piecemeal fashion. Moreover, some inferior programs give more attention to the technology issues than to the more important curriculum and learner-support issues. This obviously involves finding the correct demographic population of students to serve, however it also requires excellent planning, appropriate technologies and well-conceived policies that can provide a viable organizational structure to support an entire distance education philosophy.

COST EFFECTIVENESS

The number one reason why universities are flocking to the distance education area, is to reach a larger student audience. Once this is achieved then the university administration must consider *cost effectiveness*. However, studies show this is true only if and when enrollments reach sufficiently high levels relative to expenditures and completion rates. A number of studies have established the cost effectiveness of the mega-universities, with unit costs per student ranging between 5 and 50 percent of the average for other universities in the country (Daniel, 1996).

Distance education cost effectiveness becomes evident when one compares the numbers of enrollees and costs per student of the mega-universities in the United States. The 3,500 U.S. colleges and universities collectively serve 14 million students at an average annual cost of $12,500 each. By contrast, the 11 mega-universities serve 2.8 million distance students at an average annual cost of only $350 each (Daniel, 1996). Since course completion rates for distance education are much lower than in conventional universities, the annual cost per student completing courses is probably much higher than the $350 cited by Daniel. However, it is highly probable that the annual costs per student are not greater than the $12,500 cost cited for conventional universities.

Two major factors that influence the cost effectiveness of distance education are the number of students enrolled and the extent of support provided to those students. The higher number of students enrolled, and the lower the per student costs per course, makes this ratio works in reverse for per student costs of providing student support services, which increases with enrollments. Offering a limited number of courses also assists to keep the costs low, since course development often is considerably more expensive for distance education than for traditional courses. Several mega-universities have acknowledged quality problems, and some students have complained that the course materials do not teach the relevant subjects well (Olson, 1996). "What it comes down to is getting the right faculty who are innovative, creative content experts, subject matter experts, and who understand how students learn so they can put something pedagogically sound online. You ultimately have to have faith in faculty who will do this and who will attract excellent motivated students who want to share in this," states Burt Oakley, Associate Vice President for Academic Affairs at the University of Illinois (1998). UCLA provides the course content and faculty. Online Learning net, an exclusive online provider for the continuing education arm of UCLA in which some 2000 students have enrolled since September, 1996, provides the technical support, software platforms and customer support. "Most schools are not equipped to provide technical customer support. We have course managers who provide one-on-one help to get students over the technological hurdles," says Cathy Beaumont, Director of Marketing at UCLA (1998).

The cost effectiveness driver can not overcome the education quality driver. The university administrators' need to reduce costs and make the universities profitable is extremely strong, not just in the United States, but in other countries as well. In Australia, the federal government has had a key role to play in rural community development and education. Telecommunications infrastructure and services, particularly until recently have been a monopoly over the provision of telephone services. Providing telecommunication services to rural remote Australia has been a technical and financial challenge. Therefore, the need for funding has taken precedent over other needs. Huge distances between settlements and the sparseness of scattered rural populations have created a difficult business and educational environment for governments and service providers alike, with high capital infrastructure costs and apparently limited revenue opportunities. Higher education needs for distance education have been very limited, as the need to basic communication (i.e. telephones) is much greater, as the basic needs are met the distance education opportunities will increase. However, the cost effectiveness driver will be a determining factor, when a government, a business or an educational institution has to make an important decision regarding the viability of a telecommunications program, a business investment or a distance education program, without money there will not be a program.

TRENDS AND CHALLENGES

Although distance education has been around for more than 200 years, and has shown to be effective in a variety of settings, the introduction of technology and its application across global boundaries introduces new trends, issues and challenges. The explosion of the Internet in the past five years is an excellent challenge to the quality of distance education. What quality measurement do you use for the Internet distance education? Which technology is better and why? Should we use the lowest common denominator of technology when we are teaching across global boundaries? Who should be the technology driver in multilateral educational agreements? These are just the beginning of questions that need to be answered by distance educators.

Globalization has added an additional factor to accreditation and competition among universities. The distance education providers will face the challenges in evaluating course work done at, and degrees earned from, unknown educational institutions in foreign countries. While accreditation has typically been controlled by individual countries the globalization of distance education has created a whole new set of challenges in accreditation and certification of learning.

Globalization of distance education materials has a fear of contamination of cultural differences and cultural values within the countries, in which the distance education reaches. There will be heightened competition among the foreign distance education universities and the local universities. This may result in good outcomes in raising quality and reducing tuition prices. However, many local universities have resisted foreign competition and petitioned the local and federal governments to block such competition, citing economic, political and societal reasons.

Some developing countries are slow to adopt the newer programs, especially if they originate outside the country, despite the higher quality, choosing instead to develop their own; unfortunately, many lack the expertise needed to produce high quality materials and support structures. Considerable time and expense are required to produce quality programs, and countries with limited resources may put programs together that are inadequate. This inadequacy may damage the introduction of the distance education philosophy in that country for years. You only get one opportunity to make a first impression.

Making sound investment decisions about technology is another major challenge facing educational policy makers and planners. The new technologies offer options to both expand educational opportunities and improve quality, but inappropriate decisions regarding whether to use technology or what type of technology to use can be expensive and can impede the success of distance education programs. The Stanford Center for Professional Development is structured like a business, and faculty are rewarded for their participation in online efforts. Net revenues are assigned to the school of engineering and to participating faculty. So both groups are in effect shareholders. Each department decides what portion of the revenue will go to faculty incentives and unrestricted funds may be spent on university distance education expansion. As in the business world, consortiums have been success, within education, strategic alliances need to be explored more in depth. Higher education institutions should be searching out partnerships (strategic alliances) with other schools and businesses to make their offerings more attractive.

The operative word with technology is care. Care should be taken to avoid allowing the novelty of technology to drive decisions regarding the most appropriate delivery mode for distance education programs, overshadowing the more important decisions regarding curriculum and instructional quality. When the faculty and/or the teaching materials are inadequate and not effective, using a new technology to deliver that education or training will not make it any more effective.

Distance education programs need sound financial planning and management to ensure sustainability. In many developing countries, the funding is not available to continue a distant program after the donor funding are terminated, so it is important that initial investment be accompanied by adequate funding for recurrent expenditures. Government allocation for distance education changes with changing administrations. It becomes easy for another administration to eliminate a costly distance education program and show cost savings.

PERSONAL OBSERVATIONS

During the Spring semester of 1998, I taught an International Business course using distance education technologies for the first time. Our university has been teaching distance education courses for the past twelve years. There were six remote sites and approximately 130 students enrolled in the graduate business course. The student body consists mainly of working middle level executives or part time students. There were two distinct groups of students: those students who saw the course "live" as it happened and another group of students who saw the course on "delayed video." The course was scheduled over fifteen weeks meeting in the evening for three hours. The distance education technologies that were used included compressed video transmissions using a bridge for the "live" sites and video tapes for the "delayed video" sites. The "delayed video" students were one week behind the "live" students. All the course materials were on a website that the students could access if they had the ability to log onto the internet. The web software we used gave the students the ability to communicate with each other and the professor via chat rooms. Assignments, course changes, changes in the syllabus, and announcements were made through an electronic bulletin board. There was also a mechanism for giving and grading quizzes, midterms and finals from the chapters.

Different issues arose that were not anticipated: students who are not allowed access to the internet during working hours, students without computers, students computer interface problems, incompatible software, and firewalls in certain service providers. These were some of the main issues that we needed to deal with early in the semester. Course materials needed to be copied and distributed as some students complained that they could not access the website to download the course materials and/or take the quizzes. All the slides were done on Microsoft Power Point as a matter of policy. Some students could not access the website, so we had to provide hardcopy of all the slides and mail them to each site. A major issue was the remote site "live" students asking questions during the lecture. At first, I would miss some of the students because I was not able to hear them or they did not want to interrupt my lecture flow. As we began to see the students concerns on the chat rooms and the electronic bulletin board, the professor, the faculty assistants, and the production staff began to react with creative solutions. Approximately every 15-20 minutes, I would stop and ask for questions, comments and remarks, which gave all the remote "live" sites time to respond. The questions from the "delayed video" sites also needed to be answered. This was accomplished by the "delayed video" students emailing the professor and/or the faculty assistants. To make the "delayed video" students part of the "live" classroom discussions, we asked the "delayed video" students to stop their tape and discuss the questions, then restart the tape and compare their answers with the "live" students answers. This worked out very well, especially when we discussed case studies.

One issue that arose during the semester was the fact that many of the students were far away from the main campus and some were located in foreign countries. This presented a unique issue, cultural diversity. Within the international business syllabus was a section on cultural differences, which addressed some of the specific differences that travelers and business people experience when they travel and conduct business in different countries. During the semester, we experienced cultural differences with different students, those that were "live" and those that were "delayed video," as well as those that were far distances from the main campus. We found that the chat rooms and the electronic bulletin board addresses many of the cultural issues and regional differences. For example, many students were not familiar with the "standard policies" of the main campus for case studies, term papers and references. What could have been difficult turned into a real world cultural issue that we discussed and resolved during the semester.

The distance education experience is worthwhile, but it is very different from the conventional classroom experience. As a faculty member you will need at minimum the following:

1. You should be an expert in the course materials and you should have taught the course before in a traditional environment.
2. You should be creative and innovative.
3. Talk to other faculty who have taught in the distance education program and who have had some success. Find out what they did well and what they did poorly, and what they did to correct their deficiencies.
4. A clear understanding of the technologies that you will be using during the semester. You should be able to use these technologies properly and efficiently.
5. Have all your materials loaded onto the website or distributed (i.e., mailed, faxed, e-mailed) as early as possible to fix any problems before the semester begins.
6. Have a pre-plan session with your faculty assistants and production staff to discuss any anticipated issues/problems and who will solve those issues/problems. This is very important when students have software and/or hardware problems.
7. Determine how you conduct each session. What is your format? When are your breaks? How long? Do you have any special circumstances for this course?

8. Determine if there are any special student needs and assign someone from your staff to solve those issues as they arise.
9. Have faith that the technology will hold up, and if it does fail, do not worry…anything can be fixed.
10. Document everything. Keep a journal, so you can see how you have progressed.

Distance education has come a long way and it will continue to change probably at an exponential rate. The key to success is to remain flexible and open-minded to outsiders who have succeeded.

CONCLUSION

The World Bank estimates that investment in telecommunications in the developing world must double to meet the growing demand for telecommunications services. In spite of accelerated investment in many developing regions during the past decade, the vast majority of people living in developing countries still lack access to basic telecommunications. New technologies offer the possibility of technological leapfrogging, (e.g., to reach end users through wireless local loops or small satellite terminals rather than stringing wire and cable). Digital transmission and switching are increasing reliability and lowering cost, as well as making it possible for subscribers in developing countries to use electronic mail and voice messaging, and to access the Internet.

The new industrializing economies of eastern Europe, Asia, and Latin America are starting to close the gap. Their growing economies appear promising to the telecommunications industry and to investors who are looking for new markets. Most of these countries are also taking steps to encourage investment by privatizing their operators, providing investment incentives, and/or introducing competition.

The European Commission published a White Paper in 1993 on "Growth, Competitiveness and Employment" that emphasized an urgent need to develop a European-wide information infrastructure to help restore economic growth and competitiveness, open up new markets and create jobs. Acting on the White Paper's recommendations, the European Commission formed a task group, which in turn recommended the following action plan:

1. Accelerated liberalization of the telecommunications industry;
2. Identification of the degree of regulation required;
3. Interconnection of networks and interoperability of services to avoid fragmentation of information infrastructure;
4. Reduction in tariffs, to bring then in line with those of other advanced industrialized regions;
5. Review of the standardization process to increase its speed and responsiveness to the market (Commission of European Communities, 1993).

This was a first phase in the building of an infrastructure, which European universities could use to develop their distance education. The Canadians have developed a similar process and are in the midst of their plans of linking Canadian communities, businesses, government agencies and educational institutions.

As we approach the 21st Century, distance education is seen as potential big business for the education marketplace. There is not a college or a university that wants to be seen as falling behind the technological leading edge in distance education. This has initiated a distance education competition among the top schools and the smaller schools. Eventually there will be a shake out in the market, but not for another three to five years, minimum.

No one knows who will be left, whether all schools will adapt to this change or whether a core of institutions will specialize in distance education, just as we now have schools that specialize in business and other professional areas. There is little true evaluation that calls the best from the worst in this new arena. Any school can participate in this field with a webpage and distance education technology. There is no hard research on how effective this type of learning is or what types of distance learning methods work better. However, this will change with more research and experience in the next five years.

Universities, students and faculty are at the cutting edge or the *bleeding edge* of education. Those paradigm pioneers that will explore this cutting edge are certain to find a plethora of problems, issues and concepts that will play a major role in the development of distance education. The internet and the explosion of multimedia learning materials will greatly enhance the development of distance education in the 21st Century. It is important to remember that it is *not* the distance education programs, the newest technologies or the cost savings that should drive our universities to develop distance education, it should be the desire to meet the educational needs of our students, so that our students can meet the challenges of the 21st Century.

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DISTANCE EDUCATION: PRAGMATICS AND REALITIES

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Abstract

Distance education (DE) is a widely acclaimed process for reaching customers who might otherwise not have access to further education and training. Establishing a DE program requires careful planning, extensive equipment and facilities, and highly qualified faculty who can adjust to an alternative approach to traditional teaching.

INTRODUCTION

Few educational institutions, corporations, or agencies have unlimited human or financial resources. With the trend to downsize, be cost-effective, financially responsible, and look seriously at cost containment, educational administrators and industry executives are closely examining what they can offer to students and employees and how those offerings can be efficient and cost-justified. Effective use of time has become critical for both employers and employees, for faculty, and for students. Concomitantly there has been an increased emphasis on the under-served learner and how the needs of those learners can be met in a technologically changing society.

Many of the world's most serious problems, especially those involving health, including poverty, sanitation, literacy, and the environment, are not country-specific. Addressing them means having multinational dialogue and educational programs which transcend political, sociocultural, and geographic barriers. With the development of computer technology and sophisticated communication modalities, distance education [literally, providing education from a distance with the goal of learning from a distance] has been and continues to be used to provide fiscally responsible educational programs to address some of these issues.

This does not suggest that distance education is inexpensive. The initial costs can be extraordinary and continuation expenses need to be planned carefully from the outset. It is, however, considerably less costly to have one faculty member teaching a large number of students at several distance sites, than to relocate the students or send faculty to the outreach locations. Whether the outreach students are 75 miles or 2000 miles away has little relevance for the primary technological components of teaching the course. Distance education customers can live anywhere in the world and take an Internet course employing a computer. And teleconferencing is drawing world leaders and experts together to share information from clearly disparate settings.

In addition, students, leaders, corporate executives and even ordinary citizens in many countries now use computers as a primary mechanism for communication. Families communicate around the world by e-mail. Hotel and airline reservations are made on the Internet. Birthday gifts, household goods, and even automobiles can be ordered from a home computer. Young people are growing up with technological sophistication that was unheard of just a few years ago. They are also learning at an early age to be curious, to seek new information, to transcend the borders of their own country, and to use computer technology to meet their needs. The microprocessor is no longer science fiction. As a result, students are much more comfortable with concepts such as distance education and are aware of the possibilities that it has for enhancing their educational opportunities.

One of the more striking reasons for using distance education or distance learning is the inherent implications for reaching those students or customers who are geographically remote. The British Open University founded in 1969 [Willis, 1994] was widely acclaimed as a major breakthrough in reaching a new cadre of students. Distance education is now taking place in many countries and teaching students who were previously not reachable. There are programs in Africa, China, Europe, the Asia-Pacific, Australia, North America and around the globe.

While education, especially higher education, is a crucial determinant in today's global market, it is still unattainable for many people, simply as a result of where they live. There are an increasing number of people who must continue their employment while they are pursing further education. It may not be possible for them to move to another city, commute to classes, enroll in collegiate level courses or much needed continuing education in order to advance in their positions. The employed parent, for example, must maintain responsibility for children while going to school. The corporate executive must meet work obligations and expectations. The skilled technician may not be able to afford to be gone from work, especially if the employer garnishes wages for being absent, even if it is for further education.

We are indeed living in a global society and one in which the knowledge explosion is of atomic proportions, and multicultural education is in the forefront [Jolly, 1995]. Expertise comes from a variety of sources, and as knowledge continues to grow exponentially, it is impossible to have all the experts in a given location where they are in fact needed. Drawing on the information systems, the experience, and the knowledge of experts in multiple settings can provide a resource for growth in corporations, communities, and even entire nations.

Expertise also varies not only from setting to setting, but from country to country. We can now have health care professionals in the United States sharing the latest advances in medicine with their colleagues in other parts of the world, business executives in Europe teaching management strategies to their colleagues in other countries, and physicians using telemedicine to diagnose and treat illnesses that were previously not possible. Distance education and computer technology [Molnar, 1997] can afford professionals, industry employees, and students at all levels, the opportunity to seek additional education without leaving their home communities or places of employment. It can provide opportunities to share information over long distances that were heretofore too costly, too time-consuming, and too impossible to be considered.

SELECTED LITERATURE

Over the past decade there has been considerable research and numerous books, articles, and conferences throughout the world on distance education and learning [Holmberg, 1995; Mood, 1995]. Information on designing distance education classrooms is available on the Web [Gilbertson & Poindexter, 1998]. Entire journals are devoted to the topic. University educators now teach in a virtual university and have assume the role of virtual professors [Phillips, 1998]. Students can now be reached in a variety of settings with computer network technology [Eastmond & Granger, 1997]. George [1996] describes the use of distance learning with rural tutors through the British Open University in Scotland and even research/writing is considered [Whyte, 1995]. In the United States, a number of states have a state-wide system, such as North Carolina . Willis [1994] reports on the use of distance learning and the major enrollments of students in courses in over twenty countries throughout the world with numbers ranging from a few thousand in Portugal to one million in China. Saba [1997] suggests in Corporate Virtual Learning and Training that corporations that use technology effectively can have a positive impact on their own prosperity.

Instruction by distance education requires modifications in the ways that teachers teach. Comeaux [1995] further suggests that instructors who use a sense of humor, are relaxed in their teaching style, and directly involve students are more successful. Consideration is also being given to how students with disabilities can be accommodated in their needs to utilize computer technology and access the Web [Young, 1998]. Facing the advanced technology, cost control, and the tremendous expansion of distance education programs are important factors in delivery quality courses [Tebeaux, 1995]. Gaining students' views [Smith, 1996] and providing for student feedback can be an essential resource for improving distance education programs. There are growing concerns, however that virtual universities lack soul [Limerick, 1997]. The evaluation of distance education projects [Wagner, 1993] is essential for their further development.

DISTANCE LEARNING AT THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT WILMINGTON (UNCW)

In 1991, five partners in southeastern North Carolina banded together with corporate support in the Cape Fear Regional Partnership Network (RPN) which was one component of the statewide Vision Carolina project [Howard-Vital, 1995]. This full-motion interactive video testbed pioneered many of the collaborative educational concepts on which the state broadband network was subsequently based. In 1993, the group was expanded and received a grant of $486,000 from the Rural Electrification Administration (REA) to promote distance education through advanced telecommunications. In 1994, with support of the General Assembly, the State of North Carolina announced the creation of the North Carolina Information Highway (NCIH) to connect universities, community colleges, high schools, hospitals, public health organizations, county governments and prisons. In less than three years, sessions on the network increased from 7,282 to 10,901. New sites continue to be added [Global Access].

The North Carolina Information Highway (NCIH) is now a statewide ATM-SONET broadband network. It is a private-public partnership which is supported by the operating telephone companies under the protocols which were established by the North Carolina Internal Resources Management Commission. There are currently over 130 sites. At UNCW, there are two distance learning centers which provide seating for students, have cameras with movable lenses, a microphone for the instructor and individual microphones for students at their desks, FAX capability, a computer with a variety of software, three large television monitors with split-screen capability, and small screens at the podium for the instructor. Due to its visionary design, cutting-edge technology, and flexible range of services offered, the NCIH has been internationally acclaimed as one of the most advanced communications networks in existence. It provides global access for state agencies and accommodates every known interconnective video and data platform [Global Access].

The system will accommodate non-interactive broadcasts to one hundred sites, and to four sites simultaneously with synchronous, interactive communication among all four of those sites. Faculty and students are therefore able both to see and to hear anyone simultaneously at all of the sites. At one of the sites, there is the additional capability for the instructor to be seen on the screen as well as the students at each of the sites. The outreach sites have similar capabilities. A technician is available in the equipment room of each site immediately prior to and during all class sessions. This person is responsible for camera angles, zoom functions, FAX communications, sound and lighting, and the many technical aspects of the actual transmissions. A coordinator or facilitator is designated in the outreach communities to assist with any problems or special issues which arise and to facilitate the students ability to enroll in courses, acquire textbooks and course syllabi, and have any necessary communication with the greater university.

IMPLEMENTING A DISTANCE EDUCATION PROGRAM

The implementation process begins with a needs assessment by the corporation or university and by a follow-up assessment by individual divisions or schools to determine what courses are needed, who the potential audience is, who will teach the courses, how and where they will be taught, and how the program will be funded. In the case of UNCW, additional grant funding was acquired to provide the necessary facilities on the main campus and at the outreach sites to support such a program. Since distance education can take many forms, the type of equipment, technology, and communication systems determines the types of education which can take place. Having a mission and strategic plan are essential to the successful implementation of the program.

Teaching by interactive, audiovisual, distance education, regardless of the course content, requires modification in traditional teaching and learning styles. Consideration needs to be given to the course objectives, the types of courses being taught, the actual course content, and the background and educational preparation of *both* the students and the faculty. Detailed course syllabi, printed handouts, textbooks and other materials need to be developed or acquired, and sent to the students in advance of the course. A local, on-site resource person needs to be identified and available at outreach sites to meet the students the first day of class, to handle the initial orientation, and to familiarize students with the setting and the process. Time can then be allocated at the beginning of the first class in the course to introduce students to their counterparts at the various sites and to the processes used in distance education and learning. Students need to become familiar and comfortable with television cameras and monitors, and the microphones. Reducing the usual but now disruptive extraneous factors and noises in the more traditional classroom are essential if communication is to be clearly transmitted.

Before encouraging or allowing students to enroll in an interactive audiovisual distance education course, it can be most helpful to provide them with information on how the course will be taught, what their responsibilities will be, and how the course differs from traditional courses taught in a classroom. This is especially important for students who are new to the concept. Students who need a great deal of individual contact with the instructor in order to succeed may have difficulty with a distance education course. Distance education students need to be highly self-motivated, mature in their approach to learning, responsible for their own behavior, and committed to this type of educational process. Biner & Dean [1997] suggest that high performers tend to be the most self-sufficient. Students need a support system at their home location who can assist with problems as they arise, encourage the student to continue, and help the student determine when additional resources are needed. It is equally important that these students have sufficient resources to meet the course objectives. This may mean access to their own computer, appropriate computer software, FAX capability, e-mail capability, and of course telephone and postal service.

When students are using a variety of telecommunication systems, equipment, and software, and are learning from a distance, they need timely feedback from the instructor and may need a great deal of assistance in operating their equipment or using computer software. This is especially challenging, both for students and for faculty, because it frequently requires that faculty teach students how to operate a computer, run computer software, and use e-mail over the Internet and by e-mail. Further problems are encountered when the Internet providers that the students are using are not compatible with those of the faculty or with other students with whom they need to communicate.

When teaching a distance education course, faculty need to make adjustments in their style of teaching to fit this type of education - namely, teaching a course in a television studio-like environment and to students who are not physically present in the room. Faculty need to be continually attentive to the more subtle clues that indicate students are not receiving the content or understanding the information and actually ask students very directly if they understand. Because a teacher frequently uses the non-verbal cues from students as feedback in the classroom setting, these same teachers need to develop alternative methods of receiving student feedback. The instructor may indeed not be able to see the individual faces of students without a close-up view, and certainly can not scan the room looking for behavioral clues as one normally does in a traditional classroom. Not only the personal characteristics of the student need to be addressed, but the individual learning styles of students do as well. The master teacher will use a variety of different teaching techniques in a traditional classroom. This becomes even more consequential in a distance education environment. Using interactive group work can be difficult, but most worthwhile by involving students in the teaching-learning process.

The distance learning centers at UNCW have split screens and employ two-way interactive video on a fiber-based network allowing the instructors and students at the various sites to talk and view one another simultaneously. Of course, one of the problems inherent in this approach is that it can be very difficult to determine which student is speaking at a given time. The technician can be requested to zoom in on a selected site, and the student who is speaking can be clearly identified. This takes additional time, but more importantly not all students are comfortable with being on a close-up camera. Of course, not all faculty are comfortable teaching in a television studio either. Some students are not comfortable speaking in front of a camera or being viewed by others on a television screen and may be reluctant to speak or ask questions. They may be timid speaking in public or not comfortable with their appearance. The problem is compounded in cultures in which such direct communication is not acceptable.

Transparencies, slides, computer applications, videotapes, films, and lectures can easily be delivered through distance education. Modifications can be made by the technicians to ensure clear delivery of the information to the various sites, but the instructor must give attention to these matters as well. Most overheads and lecture notes, for example need to be prepared in a horizontal format and with a print that is sufficiently large to be read by the viewers. The rules for the preparation of overhead transparencies are the same as for slides in this setting. Color and graphics enhance most presentations. Hand-written materials are considerably more difficult to read. With the aid of a computer, an enlarged computer screen and with large print, most concepts, information, formulas, and graphics can readily be taught directly from the computer screen. Some presentations can be done through hypermedia, however, varying the types of presentation helps to stimulate attention among the students.

Sufficient airtime needs to be arranged for the course, and the person teaching the course must allow for those things which consume time that do not normally pose a problem in other types of classroom settings. Time is needed at the beginning of the session to test the transmission, both visual and auditory, to make certain that everything is operating properly, and to be certain that the students are able to hear and see everyone. During the actual class, time needs to be planned for moving from one form of media to another, such as from overhead transparencies to the use of the computer. Additional time is needed for identifying students who have questions, and even for adjusting to extraneous noise factors. If there are activities which will require interaction with the faculty member or presenter following the scheduled class session, additional airtime is needed for these activities. But remember, when the airtime is expended, the system shuts down.

Selecting the course and the material to be taught requires thorough consideration. Teaching a lecture course is considerably different from teaching a course which requires the students to work in small groups during class times. If students are required to write papers or do projects, a mechanism must be developed for transmitting these papers back and forth between the teacher and the students. This can be in the form of a FAX, the postal service, e-mail with attachments, or having someone actually deliver the papers. Arrangements need to be made to videotape classes for those students who may miss a class or need to review previously presented content. And, of course, faculty must always be prepared for equipment failures, power outages, and changes in schedules.

Examinations pose another problem. If the exams are to be proctored, arrangements need to be made to send the examinations to the alternative site, have them secured, and have a qualified person proctor the examinations. Examinations can also be given by projecting them to the screen, but this does not allow for the individual progress of the student through the exam. If the results are to be mailed, it is wise for the site proctors to retain a photostatic copy in the event that the examinations are lost in the mail. Some universities actually require students to take all examinations on the main campus and to appear on that campus a specified number of times during the semester in order to have personal contact with the instructor and other students.

Faculty preparation for teaching via distance education needs to be taken seriously. It can be highly worthwhile for faculty who are new to distance education to observe other faculty who are experienced with this form of teaching. It is even more helpful for new faculty to participate in a distance teaching setting with another faculty member before assuming sole responsibility for a course. Learning what works and what does not work is essential for the successful completion of the course. Using seasoned faculty who are able to present information in an interesting format and interact effectively with students is important for a meaningful experience. Listening to a professor read lecture notes is incredibly boring in a normal classroom, but it is even more boring on a large screen television monitor with a microphone.

Non-classroom teaching hours need to be addressed by the faculty and administrators. Distance education students generally have a different schedule than traditional students. Many of these students find that evening and week-end hours are more conducive for study and these may be the only times that are available for them to be in contact with the instructor. This means that students may need to send papers, ask questions, and have contact with the instructor at times when the instructor is not normally at his or her place of employment. The use of home computers for e-mail, both for the faculty and the students may be the primary method of communication. This can be enhanced by phone calls to and from the instructor's home and office, by fax communications, and by the postal service. The instructor needs to understand from the outset that teaching a course by distance learning may require a great many hours of teaching and work outside of the distance learning center and faculty office. It is not uncommon for a faculty member to receive 20 or more e-mail messages a day from distant site students, depending, of course, on the size of the class. It takes time to read and respond to these, but these may be the only source of communication outside of the class times.

There are also new elements and conditions which need to be considered when teaching under the watchful eye of a television camera. Mannerisms are exaggerated, colors may be distorted, and what the instructor wears may challenge even the most creative technicians. Following the guidelines of television interviewing can be extremely helpful. In addition, remembering that the instructor is constantly on camera and has a microphone turned on can avoid some situations which may not only be embarrassing but potentially litigious. For example, comments made to a student about his or her grades and intended only for that student, become public information when they are said into a microphone. Mechanisms need to be established for confidential comments and the instructor needs to be able to turn off the microphone when necessary.

Formative and summative evaluations of the students *and* of their distance education and learning experience can provide opportunities for gaining information to modify and improve the course. Students are the designated customers, and their perceptions of the experience and their learning are the most essential component of any examination of a distance education program. And yet, evaluations of the faculty and course need to be separated to ensure that criticisms of the distance education experience are not construed to be criticisms of the faculty member when they are in fact not justified. At the same time, faculty need to be continually evaluating how they are teaching and how students are responding, as well as identifying problems and issues which need to be addressed immediately and in future courses.

SUMMARY OF STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS

STRENGTHS

The strengths of distance education clearly evolve around the access it provides students and employees, or the customers to education which would otherwise probably not have been possible. This includes access by potential new learners, off-site students and clients, non-traditional students, and in general, those who are geographically remote. It also provides the opportunity for experts to share their knowledge and skills with those who are in need of them. It provides access to higher education, degree programs, continuing education, and to acquiring much needed skills, and connects people with expertise from multiple locations. It allows corporations and educational institutions the cost-benefit of offering educational opportunities to a large number of students at distant sites without having to transport faculty and students, and use existing classrooms and facilities.

Limitations

While distance education can be extremely cost-effective when large numbers of people can receive education without incurring the costs of more traditional education programs, it is extremely expensive to implement and maintain. Classes are time-consuming to prepare and require that faculty develop new strategies for teaching course content. Many faculty must acquire new skills and adapt to an environment that can easily become impersonal. New accommodations need to be made to provide for student/faculty interactions and prevent students from becoming just numbers in a crowd. Distance education students do not have the same opportunities for social activities, and while not all students want or need campus life [Guernsey, 1998], it is an important aspect of a university education. Individual time with students frequently requires additional technological mechanisms. It can be difficult to help students who are weak or having difficulty, and sometimes even to identify who those students are. Students, in addition, may need to acquire or have access to technological equipment and software that they previously did not have. Getting to know the students, and having students be able to have one-on-one time with the faculty for mentoring and personal growth is challenging. Further research is needed on the long-term retention of knowledge and skills by students and the impact of distance education on their ability to achieve their goals.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Develop a strategic plan and budget for the distance education program.
2. Develop and maintain university, corporate, or agency support for the DE program, in all its aspects, and at all levels.
3. Involve distance site officials in planning and implementation.
4. Locate and retain qualified faculty and technicians.
5. Be certain that equipment, facilities, and software are acquired and maintained properly.
6. Identify potentially needed resources at distance sites and plan forresource utilization for each course.
7. Identify site coordinators and resource persons for each distance center.
8. If additional equipment is needed, have this available before courses begin, and keep equipment in working order.
9. Have faculty practice in the setting before teaching the course, preferably with a master teacher experienced with distance education courses.
10. Develop alternative communication resources - FAX, postal service, phone, e-mail with attachments, videotaping, courier services.
11. Prepare for power and equipment failures.
12. Assist faculty in preparing courses/classes to prevent wasted airtime and promote effective teaching.
13. Develop a master evaluation system for the DE program.
14. Develop summative and formative evaluations for the course and the faculty teaching the course, keeping course and faculty evaluations separate.

CONCLUSIONS

Distance education is no longer some vague, remote concept based on an idealistic technology of the future. It is a reality of the present. And while the technology, and the sophistication of that technology, will continue to change, distance education is already having a profound impact on how educators educate, and how businesses do business. Being a part of this computer chip revolution is exciting, challenging, frustrating and inspiring. It has caused us to question not only our teaching methods, but the goals for our learners, for our customers, and for ourselves. With the commitment of educational administrators, business executives, political leaders, and faculty, distance education can reach people across the globe, providing them access to education, opportunities for personal and economic growth, and encouraging a multinational understanding that was heretofore infeasible. Distance education is no longer a vision of the future. It is the New Age infrastructure for universal education.

ENDNOTES

1. Technical specifications for the distance education program at UNCW are available through the office of the Vice-Chancellor for Public Service and Extended Education, University of North Carolina at Wilmington, 601 S. College Road, Wilmington North Carolina, USA, 28403.

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THE BLOCKBUSTER APPROACH: USING COMMERCIALLY-RELEASED VIDEO AS CASE STUDY PEDAGOGY IN THE CLASSROOM

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Abstract

In teaching topics of sociology and criminal justice, commercially released videos have been successfully combined with assignments which require students to match information from the textbook to the story or characters [i.e., the case study] in the film. For instance, the movie Boyz 'n' the Hood, if analyzed from a sociological perspective, contains scenes which exemplify more than twenty criminological theories. This articles serves as an analysis of four video "case studies" which have been researched and tested in the classroom environment, with tremendous didactic success. The advantages and dangers of using video as case study are also discussed.

INTRODUCTION

At a recent conference where I was setting up a multi-media presentation on this topic, I experienced such persistent difficulties with the computer and video equipment that I muttered: "I guess I'm having a *falling down* day."

Colleagues within earshot nodded in complete understanding; and a conference organizer joked "I hope you don't have a bazooka in that briefcase!"

That my comment was met with immediate recognition of the frustration suffered by the main character in the movie *Falling Down* is evidence of the level to which film and video have infiltrated our everyday lives. Recent news stories covering incidents of crime and tragedy have been linked to movie viewing--such as the "Money Train" fire-bombing of a subway tollbooth, "The Program" highway suicides by intoxicated youths, and "New Jack City" melees in the streets outside cinemas--reinforce the view that television and film greatly influence our culture [Centerwall 1989, and Pfuhl 1970].

Today, the average American household's enormous consumption of movies and television has been supplemented with the another media household staple, the VCR and videotape option. With the systematic transfer of film to video just months after cinematic release, to have seen a "movie" more often means that the viewer saw the video of the movie; indeed, "movie" and "video" are almost culturally synonymous.

This rising tide of video culture is perhaps disturbing to criminal justice educators, who not only find offensive the sexual, criminal, and violent content of such movies, but who also fight daily to coax, inspire, and coerce our video-raised student into reading the content (words!) of an assigned text How many times have we heard it said of the literary classics "I didn't read the book, but I saw the movie."?

The purpose of this article is to recognize the challenges faced by the educators of criminal justice sciences, and to propose that our disinclination to acknowledge the role of movies in shaping students' perceptions of "real world" crime is, indeed, a battle already lost. While the consolatory idiom "if you can't beat 'em, join 'em " rings hollow, it is my experience and belief that by integrating commercially-released video into the criminal justice curriculum [see Jordan, 1996], educators can reinvent the nemesis of movies on video into a useful classroom tool, and thus beat plowshares from swords.

While the proposed pedagogy can be applied to almost all criminal justice subjects, the focus of this article is on the value of video in teaching the theories of criminology. Having taught crime theory for the past eight years to both inner-city (and mostly minority) students in the City of New York as well as suburban (and mostly white) students in western Connecticut, I have found a tremendous difference in students' interest in, and perceptions of, the nature of crime. The one universal factor I have observed in all my teaching experience is that the word "theory" is usually met with complete misunderstanding and disdain. For students, "theory" often translates to "someone else's boring ideas to memorize."

Because teaching the theory section of criminology presented such a challenge, I sought early to find a mechanism by which to demonstrate the crux of crime theories--many of which are dismissed by students as irrelevant for being based on dated research--with a current situation that students accept as "real world" and to which they can often personally relate. The challenge involves not only the communication of course content, but also the engaging of the learner in the process. If successful, criminological theories will be truly comprehended and internalized by students through practical application, and not just rote memorized and regurgitated for exams.

The solution, which I have dubbed "The Blockbuster Approach" gives credence to the mass appeal of movies and video, which suggesting an innovative pedagogy for engaging the learner.

PEDAGOGY

Central to the task of using video to teach crime theory is the realization that a specific assignment, preferably a written paper assignment, must precede the viewing of the video in the classroom and steer all discussion of the movie's content. In my own criminology class curricula, I integrate the video into the second half of a semester following the general education of crime origin, history, patterns, and typologies. With a solid background knowledge of the crime picture, students are more prepared to assimilate and interpret situations of crime presented on video.

The standard assignment may vary according to student population, specific movie content, or textbook applicability, but the following assignment serves as a foundation to build upon or modify:

> Based upon the information from Chapter 5 (Choice Theory), Chapter 7 (Social Structure Theory), Chapter 8 (Social Process Theory) and Chapter 9 (Conflict Theory), consider which theories of crime causation from these chapters best explain the criminal situations and activities and depicted in the film [*insert name of film here*].
>
> In your paper, you should consider at least three different theories in your exploration of the story; a good paper will use specific details from the film (including names of characters, descriptions of scenes, specific dialogue, etc.) to support its premise. Give actual examples from the storyline to illustrate your reasoning in choosing a theory, and careful logic and analysis in applying supporting evidence from the movie to your selected theories.
>
> In your conclusion, choose one theory from these chapters--perhaps one you did not even see depicted in the movie--which YOU believe to be the most relevant explanation for [*insert movie theme here; e.g. "crime in inner-city urban neighborhoods"*]. Again, explain your logic. Be sure to include realistic suggestions for how we might address the problems of street violence and comment on what YOU would do to correct he problem if you were a policy maker; be sure your suggestions are appropriate for the theory you selected.

The wording of the assignment can and should be tailored to the film, perhaps focusing on a particular character or crime in the movie, but as a general rule the "seek and find" theme of the assignment is very well received. Students are challenged by the hunt for the matching theories, *which indirectly forces them to read the textbook*, but are even more enthralled to realize that there is really no right or wrong answer for the assignment, but rather a well-supported argument for a theory selection. I have found that once students perceive that the professor considers their thought process and personal opinions as valid, they work hard to provide the missing link of substantiation so often neglected in other written assignments. Granted, some answers are clearly more correct than others, but students sometimes use such personal insight, creative logic, and emphatic passion for their chosen theories that they succeed in converting the professor to their perspective.

VIDEO SELECTION AND APPEAL

The appeal of using commercially released video, as opposed to educational video, in the classroom is that it is inexpensive, easily accessible, and visually engaging [Jordan 1996].[1]

The most practical advantage to using this technique is, however, that while the assignment stays the same from semester to semester, the actual video shown for the assignment can be selected or changed according to the needs of the class. While many inner-city students can very much relate to the content of movies which depict crime in inner-city Los Angeles, Brooklyn, or Newark, some minority students indicate resentment that these movies always focus on black and Hispanic populations. In consideration of equitable and sensitive treatment of racial and ethnic depiction in these movies, I researched and found several lesser-known movies featuring white characters in criminal situations, and found them equally well-received by all student audiences. The best rule for selecting an appropriate video for the assignment is simply to know and respect the sensitivities and abilities of the students.

An inherent advantage of this pedagogy is that by alternating the video shown for the assignment each semester, current students are less apt to seek out prior students who had the assignment, and plagiarize from their papers. Archived papers written for the same assignment in previous classes are of little use, other than to serve as inspirational examples for how fun the assignment can be. Students who have admitted to seeking out old papers from other students are obviously disappointed in their quest because the movie in question has changed; however, old papers do serve as excellent models for illustrating how the same theories can be applied to a multitude of situations. Educators might opt to make copies of previous well-written papers available for student perusal, so as to demonstrate how an exploration of crime theory is not limited to one particular movie. Without exception, each year a new movie has been released on video which can be utilized for this assignment. As new movies are produced with applicable content, the educator can continue to add to, substitute, or rotate the roster of appropriate videos for the assignment.

Videos must *always* be pre-screened by the educator for appropriate content and fit with the course objectives, and careful consideration should be made of the movie's language, violence, and sexual content. While students of an inner-city college might be jaded by such content, other institutions might contain very conservative or religious student populations who are offended by even mild profanity. Care should be taken to consider the level of the course, the maturity of the student population, and relevance of prevailing social and political factors. Students should be forewarned of objectionable content and offered the option of seeing a different video or different assignment if requested

THE RECOMMENDED VIDEOS

Richard Quinney (1970) wrote that a "social reality" of crime may be created by the media that does not reflect how crime actually occurs in the "real world." It is arguable that much has changed in the 25 years since this claim, particularly with the new genre of movies depicting the social and cultural components of crime. We no longer accept Ozzie and Harriet, or even the Cosbys, as icons of ideal family life in modern society. Since the 1980s, many movies depicting a variety of criminal situations have emerged as veritable prototypes for teaching specific crime theories. Based upon reactions from students who know first-hand the realities of today's urban street life, suburban ennui, and ubiquitous family dysfunction, the teleology of these movies' storylines appears to be art imitating life, and not vise versa.

Because all criminology textbooks present crime theory with different emphasis, organization, and thematic categorization, it is difficult to exactly correspond theory typologies for each movie. For ease of application, references made to theory typologies will correspond with chapters from Siegel's *Criminology: Theories, Patterns and Typologies* (5th edition).

Boyz 'n' The Hood

23-year old director John Singleton's *Boyz 'n' the Hood* (1991) serves as the all-time most recommended movie for depicting textbook criminology. One student wrote in her paper's introduction: "It is as if Singleton made *Boyz* while reading Siegel's *Criminology*." The story of a divorced father trying to raise his son with values in a neighborhood beset by urban crime and negative peer influence has facets of all the major theories. Panned shots of a trash-strewn and police-cordoned crime scenes, mixed with shots of boarded-up windows and grafittied walls, illustrate the concepts of community deterioration and fear as presented in the introduction to Social Structure Theories. In another scene, the main character, Furious Styles, gives a rallying speech about gentrification to a group of African American youths in the Compton area of Los Angeles, focusing on another major theme of social ecology.

Perhaps the most obvious social structure theory illustrated is Miller's Focal Concerns (1958). *Trouble* occurs when a small dispute between two youths who bump each other on the street erupts in gunfire; *toughness* is demonstrated by Doughboy who, upon seeing his enemies drive by his home, offers a come-and-get-me gesture by spreading his arms invitingly; *smartness* is seen when Tre and Ricky are fleeing their enemies and split up so as to increase their chances of escape; *excitement* is found in scenes of drinking, showing off cars, and "hanging out" on the main drag of Compton; *fate* is suggested in the scratching of a lotto card by Ricky, who is unsure he can get a football scholarship to go to college; and *autonomy* is sought when Tre tells his mother that he doesn't want to see her because he needs to "cool" with his friends.

Cohen's *middle class measuring rods* (1955) are demonstrated in a scene where Tre, as a young school boy, is berated by a white teacher because he disagrees with her version of American history. Cohen's theory identifies the three subcultures of College Boy, Corner Boy, and Delinquent Boy; all correspond perfectly to the characters of Tre, Ricky, and Doughboy, respectively.

Boyz also provides several excellent examples of Social Process Theory. Hirschi's Social Control theory (1969) proposes social bonds which are demonstrated by Tre and Ricky: *attachment* is seen in Tre's relationship with his mother and father; *commitment* is identified in Tre and Ricky's studying for the SAT test and plans regarding college; *involvement* is indicated by Tre's mall employment and Ricky's football practice; *belief* is suggested by Tre's law abiding behavior--specifically, when he demands Doughboy let him out of a car when they are on their way to perpetrate a revenge murder.

The *self-fulfilling prophecy* component of Labeling Theory can also be found in Doughboy and Ricky's mother's comments to her children: Doughboy is asked "Where are you going, you fat fuck; you know you don't got a job" while Ricky, when he claims he's going to play football when he grows up, is told "That's right! That's what you're gonna do." *Stigma* is attached to the youths when Furious Styles tells his son "those boys across the street don't have anyone to look after them--and you're going to see how they turn out, too."

Quinney's Radical Conflict Theory (1970) , with its focus on social realities of crime, is observed in scenes where the police harass black residents and fail to respond to their calls in timely fashion. The most telling scene features Furious Styles lecturing the residents about how the government puts gun shops and liquor stores in the ghetto because "they want us to kill ourselves." He argues that black people may sell and use drugs, but they do not own any planes or ships to bring the drugs into the country: "It's only when crack showed up in Iowa, and on the street, that you started seeing it come into the country."

These are the most obvious theories found in *Boyz 'n' the Hood*, but strong arguments can also be made for other theories. The movie is also excellent for demonstrating vocabulary words in the text such as *disputaciousness*, *siege mentality*, and *reaction formation*, words that students sometimes have difficulty understanding prior to having an illustrative example from the movie.

Menace II Society

Menace II Society (1993), directed by the 21-year old Hughes brothers, has been regarded by many as the *Boyz* of the 90s. Like *Boyz*, *Menace* focuses on the lives of Los Angeles youths trying to survive on the streets, but its chronology of the main character, Kain, includes some very interesting documentary footage of the Watts riots of the 1960s, and retrospective scenes on his upbringing with a drug-dealing murderous father and a heroin addicted mother. The scenes from Kain's life at age four offer an important theme of intergenerational violence, as we see the same patterns of imitation repeated in Kain's four year old godson Anthony.

Following the Social Process theme, a prevalent theory in *Menace* is Sutherland's Differential Association (1947). The retrospective introduction shows young Kain witnessing his father's violent behavior and mother's heroin overdose, as well as drinking the hard liquor offered by his father's cronies. Later, when Kain is a 17 year old street kid wanting a new--albeit stolen--car, he raises the money necessary for the purchase by doing "the only trade I knew how to do, which I learned from watching my Pop"--cooking up heroin for distribution. We see both the *techniques* and *motives* transferred by a significant other through communication, and after a few hours in a rented drug kitchen, Kain has enough money to purchase his car. More evidence of the *cultural transmission* and learning is found in young Anthony, who uses profanity only when around Kain, delights in the playing of violent video games, demands to be shown how to fire a gun (Kain complies so that "the little man can protect himself someday"), and begs to drink the hard liquor that the adults are drinking at a party.

Shaw and McKay's Social Disorganization Theory (1929) is also prevalent. The characters live in projects in the Watts section of Los Angeles, where small children play in the streets, barbecue grills are set up on sidewalks, and fights break out as a matter of course.

This Social Structure theory tends to offer a basis for *the societal anomie* which recalls Merton's Strain theory (1957). All five modes of adaptation are seen in the film: *conformity* is found in Ronnie, who is studying hard to get her degree and wants to take a $24,000 a year job "answering the phone, making copies, fetching coffee"; *innovation* is a well-pronounced theme of the movie, with Kain cooking drugs to buy his car and then car-jacking a man with the same car at a fast-food drive-through just so he can obtain the gold wheels he desires; *ritualism* is found in Mr. Butler, a school teacher, who plugs away at his job while complaining that "the white man is always on my back, but so what else is new?"; *retreatism* is found in Kain's cohorts, who chronically lounge around a darkened house in the middle of the afternoon, drinking and smoking marijuana, while watching television and waiting for a client to call with their next stolen-car order; finally, *rebellion* is a frightening theme of Ol' Dog, who is described in the movie as America's nightmare: "young, dumb, and doesn't give a fuck." Ol' Dog brutally murders a Korean grocer who says "I feel sorry for your mother," as well as a crack-addicted beggar who insults Ol' Dog by offering him fellatio in exchange for five dollars.

The Conflict Theory of Instrumental Marxism [Schwendinger and Schwendinger 1979] is also very prevalent, beginning with documentary footage of the Watts riots and continued through the beating of Kain and his Islamic friend Sharif by white officers. Kain's narrative indicates this as an occupational hazard of living in the ghetto, while Sharif protests "It's because I'm a black man, that's why: It's because I'm black!" The interesting follow-through to this scene is that the police drop the beaten boys in a Latino neighborhood, assuming that they would get beaten even worse by the Chicano gangs there. But the Latino gang assists them by taking them to the hospital, thus demonstrating a cohesiveness among exploited and abused populations in recognizing the crimes of the "state."

Menace is extremely violent and profane, but is so rich in demonstrating a wide range of theories, that is remains a very valuable tool if shown with discretion.

New Jersey Drive

New Jersey Drive (1995) follows the same themes as *Boyz* and *Menace* but has the added benefit of focusing not on gang warfare and drug trade, but on the very real problem of car theft in Newark, doing a Produced by Spike Lee, an interesting aspect of the film is that the actor who plays the main character (Jason) was actually plucked from the very type of life he portrays.

Just as in *Boyz* and *Menace*, Social Ecology theory [Byrne and Sampson 1985] with its focus on problems of urban communities--including fear, unemployment, deterioration, and siege mentality--is a pronounced theme. Newark scenery includes abandoned and condemned buildings, graffiti, dirty street and sidewalks, and the run-down parks and playgrounds where children no longer play. Anderson's *siege mentality* (1990) is very apparent in the war between black teens and the police auto-theft task squad. It is clear that Jason and his friends believe they are constantly under attack by both police and society, but when the police raid Jason's neighborhood and arrest a group of youths just to exert their presence, it becomes clear that auto theft is used as rebellion against the police, and not just an economic endeavor.

Indeed, the conflict theory of Georges-Abeyie (1989), which focuses on power relations between the justice system and African Americans, is a major theme of the movie. The power differential is clear; when Jason and his friend Ronnie inadvertently steal a police officer's (Roscoe) car, they are shot at by Roscoe in complete violation of departmental policy. Roscoe's consequential threatening and beating of Jason, and Jason's fear of testifying for the grand jury, offer a new slant on the causal factors for crime in that inner-city neighborhood. Car theft, then, is presented as an *expressive*, not an *instrumental*, crime. In a scene where Jason's friend Midget tries to take a car to a chop-shop after having been joy-riding in the car, the parts dealer refuses to even consider taking the "tainted' car.

Choice theory is also a theme of this movie. Jason appears to be trying very hard, with his mother's encouragement, to go straight. At one point, Jason is on the street, speaking to a young lady he wants to date, when his friends roll up in a newly stolen car. At his friends urging, Jason chooses to leave the girl in favor of joyriding with his friends, despite her incredulous protests. The thought process involved in stealing cars is also very related to Rational Choice Theory [see Wilson and Abrahamse 1992], as Jason and his friends make a distinction between cars stolen for parting-out (a Lexus) and cars stolen for joy riding (a BMW convertible). In one scene Midget makes decides to steal a police cruiser; when his friend protests that "you can't get no money for no police car!" Midget replies "that's not the point!"

Agents of socialization--family, school, and peers--outlined in Social Process Theory are also obvious in the movie. In Jason's *family*, his mother struggles to work hard and control her son, at one point going after him in her battered old Toyota in spite of the jeers and laughter from his friends. She orders him back in the house when he attempts to speak to his car-thief friends, and amazingly he obeys her. Though he resents his mother's efforts at control, we also see that her love and concern for him eventually prevails. Jason later replicates that effort in his dealings with his younger sister Jackie as she begins her advent into the joy-riding street life.

School is referred to in passing as a place where Jason tries to go between court appearances; but "the lines were backed up because the metal detectors were down, and when somebody pulled the fire alarm, I just decided to call it a day."

Peer influence is the major theme in the movie. Differential Association [Sutherland 1947] is a clear factor in that, as children, Jason and his friends were taught about pulley- starting cars by Midget's older brothers. The techniques and motivations for car theft, then, are transmitted through constant observation and communication with intimates.

Differential Reinforcement (Akers 1977) also becomes evident when the stealing of cars for fun and profit increases as the teens realize that the cops cannot catch them, and that virtually nothing happens to them if they do get caught. It is only after Jason's friends are killed in a police chase, and he spends several months in prison for his role in a car theft, that he makes a clean break from the life of crime.

Once again, Miller's Focal Concerns (1958) can all be found in a variety of examples in the movie: *trouble* is invited by the youth's mouthing off to police officers; *toughness* is exhibited in their interaction with each other ("Bounce or be bounced!"); *smartness* is found in their ability to outfox and outrun the police; *excitement* is the purpose of the culture of joy-riding in cars and conning women with sweet talk; *autonomy* explains Jason's resistance of control from his mother, her boyfriend, and the police; and *fate* is indicated by the acceptance of danger and death as an occupational hazard of living in Newark.

Many other of the same themes found in *Boyz* and *Menace*, such as Merton's Strain (1957), Cloward and Ohlin's Differential Opportunities (1960), and Lemert's Labeling (1951), can also be found in *New Jersey Drive*. The main asset of this movie, however, is its very clear emphasis on specific aspects of Social Ecology and Conflict theories which are not the focus of the first two films.

The Basketball Diaries

The Basketball Diaries (1995), based upon Jim Carrol's autobiography of the same name, offers a look at white youths growing up in a working-class section of Manhattan. While many of the facets of social structure theory are found in the movie, it is a treasure-trove of Social Process Theory, with several excellent examples of Choice and Conflict theories.

Perhaps the mostly strongly represented theory is Hirschi's Social Control (1969), with its emphasis on the social bonds of *attachment, commitment*, *involvement*, and *belief*. The main character, Jim, has a very deep *attachment* to his leukemia-stricken friend Bobby; when Bobby dies, Jim begins his entrance into a world of drugs and crime. His *commitment* to regular writing in his diary provides the only semblance of sanity in his life; eventually, this will be the bond which saves him in his fight against drug addiction. His *involvement* in basketball is the time-consuming diversion in his life, but when he gets kicked from the team for drug-use, he begins a downward spiral into more severe drug-related crimes. His *belief* in authority and God is absent throughout the film, most clearly demonstrated by his disrespect for the priests at his Catholic school, and his mockery of God following Bobby's death.

Miller's Focal Concerns (1958) are also prevalent in this film. *Trouble* is found in the constant pranks of the teenagers: they upset a hot-dog vendor's cart, scream wildly at passers-by, vomit on the head of a ferry passenger, and provoke a fight with another group of teens from whom they stole during a basketball game. *Toughness* is best illustrated by the narrative and scene of the teens jumping from the cliffs of Manhattan into the East River, "which is literally shitty because a million toilets flush into it every day." Jim notes that in New Jersey, boys play chicken by racing cars at each other head-on, and in Brooklyn boys burn cigarettes into their arms to show how tough they are. *Smartness* is demonstrated by Jim's pre-tasting the heroin he wants to buy from the dealer before handing him the money. *Excitement* would include the group's sniffing cleaning fluid to get high, sexual exploits with a set of promiscuous twins, and recreational drug use. *Fate* would be revealed in an angry discussion on the subject following Bobby's death; the characters talk of all the friends and acquaintances they have had who have died unexpectedly by falling off roofs, getting hit by stray bullets, and so on, with the conclusion that "when your number is up, it's up." *Autonomy* would be observed in the resistance Jim has for his mother's interest in his life; when she talks to him about getting a job he replies "do I ever ask you for money?" and when she tries to offer him a cooked breakfast, he walks out of the house to meet his friends for basketball. Even when being paddled by the Catholic school priest, Jim replies "How about another, Father? I was just beginning to enjoy it" indicating his resistance of control from any authority figure.

Anomie in general, and Merton's Strain Theory (1958) specifically, are central themes of the movie. The five modes of adaptation are seen when characters *conform* to norms by going to school and playing basketball, but *innovation* is eventually seen when characters commit robberies, burglaries, and prostitution to support their drug habits. *Ritualism* is evident in Jim's mother who works as a hotel maid, but Jim's *retreatism* increases as he turns to drug addiction and street hustling to escape the pain of his life. *Rebellion* is found not only in the teens' destructive revenge on a crooked drug dealer, but also in Jim's mother finally calling the police when her drug addicted son begs her for money to support his habit.

Cohen's theory of Delinquent Subcultures (1955) is very well illustrated in this movie. We see Jim as the Corner Boy, Neutron as the (eventual) College Boy, and Mickey as the inevitable Delinquent Boy. That the characters often vacillate between conformity and crime gives credence to Sykes and Matza's theory of Delinquency and Drift (1957) theory. Examples of all the *techniques of neutralization* can be found throughout the movie, with the usual "it was an accident!" excuse following Mickey's angry chasing of a drug dealer off the edge of a roof to his death.

Cloward and Ohlin's Differential Opportunity (1960) can also be identified as the clique of boys turns from a *conflict gang* (causing havoc on the streets and starting fights with rival gangs) to a *criminal gang* (stealing as a group so as to maximize their take) to a *retreatist gang* (drug addicted beggars and hustlers looking for escape).

Structural Marxist conflict theory [Spitzer 1975] is illustrated when Jim categorizes the different types of youths in the city into the blue-bloods (haves) and the street kids (have-nots). When the boys travel to Staten Island to play basketball at a high school there, they exclaim about the opulence of the facilities and then proceed to have one member of their gang pilfer the home team's lockers for cash and valuables during the game.

Evidence of Choice Theory [see Wilson 1975] is found in Jim's narration as he describes his thought process in experimenting with and pursuing the high of heroin. Routine Activities theory [Cohen and Felson 1972] is most prevalent: to support their worsening habits, the boys concoct a scheme where Jim distracts a little old lady while the others jump from the shadows to snatch her purse and beat her. Later we see Jim, who was earlier repulsed by the sexual advances of his basketball coach, selling sexual favors in a public restroom so as to support his heroin addiction.

Basketball Diaries is valuable in that it is based on an autobiography, and thus not subject to the common incredulousness and skepticism of the more sheltered students who protest that movies do not represent " real " life. The white, working class backgrounds of the characters is also a refreshing change from the theme of ghetto and African American crime that is more common in this film genre.

THEMATIC CHOICES

The above-recommended videos are excellent choices for depicting a wide range of crime theory in a variety of situations. There are many other excellent films, however, that are perhaps better utilized for illustrating a particular school of theories, and even one theory in itself.

For Choice theories, movies such as *A Bronx Tale* (1993), *Fresh* (1994), *Laws of Gravity* (1991), and *At Close Range* (1986), all offer excellent depiction of the thought process and rational choice used in both criminal and law-abiding situations. For issues of deterrence related to Choice theory, *Dead Man Walking* (1995) and the documentary *Scared Straight* (1978) are also highly recommended.

Biological and Psychological explanations for crime are difficult to pinpoint in quality movies, but an excellent depiction of the link between head injuries, epileptic seizures, and low intelligence and crime appears in the true story of Derek Bentley in *Let Him Have It* (1991). Less applicable, but no less disturbing, is the true story of Henry Young in *Murder in the First* (1995); Henry murders a fellow inmate after years of physical torture and mental abuse in prison. The science fiction classic, *A Clockwork Orange* (1971), offers excellent material for a discussion of aversion therapy in rehabilitation, but should be shown with discretion to mature audiences.

Social Structure theories are the most common theme of most movies in this genre. Movies which demonstrate the link between urban ecology, poverty, unemployment, illiteracy, and crime include *Fresh* (1994) , *Clockers* (1996), *Sugar Hill* (1994), *Blood In Blood Out* (1993), *South Central* (1992) , *Straight out of Brooklyn* (1991), and *Strapped* (1993). For anomie and Strain Theories, *Falling Down* (1993) is highly recommended.

Social Process theories are also highly prevalent in a number of movies: *A Bronx Tale* (1993), *South Central* (1992) , *Laws of Gravity* 1991) and *Fresh* (1994) are all excellent, but *At Close Range* (1986) is highly recommended for its depiction of learning theories and cultural transmission among a poor white family in rural Pennsylvania. The controversial movie *Kids* (1995) , which has been known to disturb even the most callous viewers, offers an excellent portrayal of peer influence and social control (or lack thereof) theory among urban white youths in Manhattan.

Conflict theory tends to be prevalent in movies also depicting Social Structure theory, but *Strapped* (1993) and *Kiss of Death* (1995) offer storylines which specifically focus on police abuse of power. *Strapped* is especially noteworthy because it features a rare instance of Chesney-Lind's Radical Feminism, when a poor pregnant teen insists she was dealing cocaine in order to provide for her unborn child when her boyfriend abandoned her.

SUMMARY

This technique of teaching crime theory with video can backfire if not handled properly. In addition to tailoring movies to the student audience and previewing all options before showing them, educators must take precautions to guard against perceived abuse of this pedagogy. Sadly, the use of television and video in the classroom has not always been used for didactic purposes, and both students and administrators alike are tempted to dismiss a video showing as simply a "filler" for the professor's downtime or laziness. The other extreme is that students are so receptive to video pedagogy that the educator succumbs to the popularity of the technique and neglects the true background of education: the textbook.

To avoid both pitfalls, video viewing should always be preceded by an introduction, as well as an assignment, by the professor. Text readings should directly correspond to the video's storyline, with students having ideally read the applicable theories before seeing the video. Care should be taken to show the movie in its entirety, or in two sittings only a day apart; splitting a movie over a four-day weekend wreaks havoc with continuity. Students should be encouraged to take notes during the film, and a discussion of how the textbook theories relate to the film should always follow the viewing. If more than one video-related assignment is given in a semester, it is prudent to pace the assignments (perhaps one in the first half of the semester, and one in the second half) so that video is perceived by students as a vehicle, not a crutch, for learning. More than two feature film videos in a semester risks the misconception that the videos are shown for entertainment.

Students should also be encouraged to rent the movie and see it again at home, with the advantage of rewinding and fast forwarding to specific scenes as they address the assignment. The professor, however, has an obligation to facilitate those students for whom this may present a hardship. Most college's have a media center or viewing room where students can make an appointment to see a video put on reserve. While many professors may choose to pay the inexpensive rental fee from their own pockets, media administrators are often so struck by the inexpensive purchase cost of these videos (often $10-30) that they opt to buy them for their permanent video library.

With the constant influx of new crime-related movies being released on video every month, there is no shortage of material to choose from. As long as films are rotated and updated to fit both students and textbook, this pedagogy can become a permanent part of the criminology curriculum.

CONCLUSION

Thirty-five years ago, Samuel Gould, then President of the State University of New York, could not have foreseen the marriage of television and video in our schools. And yet he wrote:

> The conditions under which higher education must function...throw an additional spotlight upon television. The tremendous numbers of students to be served and the inevitable struggle to acquire enough faculty and enough facilities call for real innovations in our present methods and almost radical departures from what we have hitherto considered normal. The crisis is already upon us, a few more years, and we shall be in extremely serious trouble. Television is one and only one of several innovations and departures that should be carefully considered. We should swiftly capitalize on that experience to refine and augment what has already been done [de Grazia and Sohn, 1962, p. 100-1].

This pedagogy, incorporating a television monitor with the more recent technology of VCRs and videotapes, is already merging with multi-media as video clips are edited together with theory outlines, using software packages that maximize presentation and flow for even more educational appeal. While technological advancements may eventually obviate the television component of multi-media education, it is the mass appeal of movies, combined with the creativity and innovation of the criminal justice educator, which will ensure that the Blockbuster Approach will follow us into the twentieth century.

ENDNOTES

1. It is also perfectly legal to use video as an instructional resource as long as the videos are shown in the classroom (not a library) for educational (not entertainment) purposes (F.A.C.T. 1987). Giving an assignment which corresponds to the video ensures its educational intent, but educators should make sure that videos are legitimate originals purchased or rented in accordance with copyright law. Educators have an ethical responsibility to ensure that a video rental agreement with a particular vendor does not prohibit using rentals for such purposes, that bootleg copies are not used, and that any video taped

from television for educational purposes is used and erased within the time allocation provided by copyright law.

2. For an overview of all criminology theories mentioned in this article, and others, please see Siegel's *Criminology* textbook, cited below.

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CHAPTER SIX

THE CASE METHOD AND THE INTERNET: TOOLS USED TO TRAIN STUDENT TEACHERS FOR DIVERSITY

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Abstract

Student teachers in cooperative groups adapted lessons for Special Education Limited English Proficient students depicted in teaching cases, which were then placed on-line. An inner-city district bilingual teacher commented on-line regarding the adapted lessons feasibility for her students. The student teachers then responded on-line to the comments, demonstrating extended skills and reflection.

THE PROBLEM

Inner-city teacher preparation programs in the United States are facing a unique challenge. The 1990 Census showed that 86 percent of minorities live in urban areas. Between 1980 and 1990, the minority share of central city populations went from 35 to over 40 percent [O'Hare, 1992], which created an increase in Limited English Proficient students in urban public schools [Usdansky, 1992]. Concurrently, there is an increasing number of students with learning problems from ethnically and linguistically diverse backgrounds in the inner-city classroom [Grossman, 1995]. School reform efforts and disabled rights legislation have focused on providing educational services via collaboration to all students in the general education classroom, including Limited English Proficient special education students [Friend & Cook, 1990]. Consequently, teacher educators must look for innovative ways to prepare special and general education student teachers to work together to meet the complex needs of the urban classroom.

RATIONALE FOR THE PROJECT

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act [IDEA] requires that students with disabilities receive academically and culturally appropriate instruction and services in both the special or general education setting. Bilingual or Limited English Proficient special education students must also receive reasonable accommodations under this federal law. Thus, educators may not use the same approach for every special education student included into the general education classroom [Grossman, 1995]. Research suggests that teachers can enhance students learning and success in school by adapting curriculum and instruction to students communication, learning, and motivational styles [Hare & Levine, 1985].

Currently, teacher educators are considering the best way to train student teachers to accommodate for differences. First of all, it is apparent that collaboration and articulation between general education teachers and special education specialists is a critical component of accommodation decision-making [Friend & Cook, 1990]. Most definitions of collaboration include shared problem-solving and decision-making [Sugai & Tindal, 1993]. Collaboration training is offered less in general education teacher training programs than in special education teacher training programs [Hudson & and Glomb, 1997].

Cases have been used effectively to assist preservice student teachers to address school-based issues within a problem-solving and decision-making context [Cranston-Gingras et al, 1997]. The case method is an ideal vehicle for presenting a teaching problem and promoting solution [Andrews, 1995]. This project uses case to set up the teaching problem scenario and describe the diverse student needs that require collaboration and accommodation.

While cases used in the college classroom can paint real-life situations for collaboration, analysis, and problem-solution training, one component is missing--the experienced classroom teacher that actually teaches the students and must implement the accommodations. This project also uses the Internet, which provides simultaneous in-depth information to multiple users [Rivard, 1998]. A website provides instantaneous, yet flexible, communication and collaboration opportunities between student teachers and actual classroom teachers. Unlike the college classroom or the public school classroom, where behaviors and conversations disappear, captured communications on the web allow for reflection and elaboration [Owston, 1997]. Therefore, the purpose of this project is to link student teachers with an actual classroom teacher via the Internet to create solutions and accommodations for bilingual special education student problems depicted in cases.

PROJECT DESCRIPTION

The framework for the project was developed by a group of college professors and a local inner-city school district. Once the need for accommodation and collaboration were understood, the tools [the Internet and teaching cases] were identified. A joint task force worked together to create a website, including a homepage and a curriculum development tool. Each participant was then free to write cases and design individual ways to promote accommodation and collaboration. The project described in this paper is one such outgrowth from the original project framework.

SUBJECTS AND SETTING

The 50 participants were student teachers enrolled in three sections of an elementary teaching credential training course titled, Mainstreaming: Teaching for Diversity. The student teachers were all in varying stages of their credential program, with one to three semesters of student teaching experience. They had little to no experience with bilingual or disabled students. The general education teacher participating in the project was an experienced inner-city Bilingual 5th grade teacher who had several Limited English Proficient special education [SPEDLEP] children in her class.

INSTRUMENTATION

Background Questionnaire

A questionnaire was designed to provide information regarding the project participants in the following areas: [1] courses taken that provide prerequisite skills; [2] amount/level of student teaching experience; [3] experience with disabled populations; and [4] experience with ethnically and linguistically diverse populations.

The Case

The 5th grade teacher and college professor/project developer collaborated to write a case about two of the SPEDLEP children in the 5th grade class. The case included a description of the classroom and the two students individual histories, etiologies, and language and learning problems. The disparity between the typical classroom students and instructional activities set the stage for the needed decision-making regarding accommodations.

The Curriculum Adaptation Tool

The project used the website adaptation tool developed by the original project task force. It covered the teaching concept/objective, targeted instructional levels, subject area or theme, materials and activities, language proficiency levels, demonstrations of SPEDLEP comprehension, accommodation plans, and examples of the lesson in use.

Project Evaluation

An evaluation in the form of a survey was developed to evaluate perceived, self-reported, changes in student teacher thinking and skill level as a result of the project. The items cover three areas: [1] perceived increase in ability to adapt curriculum and instruction for diverse needs; [2] increased concern about ability to adapt curriculum and instruction for diverse needs; [3] perceived effect of on-line collaboration on reflection and subsequent ability to improve adaptations. The responses categories [strongly agree, agree, feel neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree] are coded from 5-1 [positive items] and 1-5 [negative items].

TECHNOLOGICAL EQUIPMENT REQUIRED FOR PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION

Each college classroom was provided a phone line for Internet access. The professor was equipped with laptops with modems. In addition, an LCD Panel was added to the overhead projector for demonstration purposes. The 5th grade teacher had access to computers with modems at school and at home.

PROCEDURES

After obtaining demographical information via a questionnaire, the professor placed the student teachers in demographically balanced cooperative learning groups. Basic instruction and guided practice was provided in class over a four week period regarding methods for adapting curriculum and instruction for disabled and linguistically diverse learners, the on-line curriculum adaptation tool, and the use of the technological equipment.

All students then studied the case and met in their groups to prepare for a general class discussion about the students and problems presented. After the class discussion, groups again met to brainstorm effective lessons for this classroom that would include the SPEDLEP students in the case. They also discussed accommodations and adaptations for successfully including the SPEDLEP students, keeping in mind the needs of the class as a whole. Once this preliminary planned was complete, the groups worked cooperatively to use the curriculum adaptation tool to submit adapted lessons on the world wide web.

The actual 5th grade teacher was then able to log on to the Internet and, at her convenience, study the submitted lessons, looking for feasibility of use, especially in relation to the case. She wrote detailed comments, questions, and suggestions and submitted them in the "Comments" section of the website curriculum adaptation tool.

At the next class session, student teachers were able to log on to the Internet and study the comments in their groups. During this class, they commented back to the 5th grade teacher on the website, answering questions and providing additional information.

PROJECT EVALUATION

After the experience, the student teachers completed evaluation surveys and then participated in a class discussion about the project. Later, the professor and the 5th grade teacher compared the groups adapted lessons before and after the internet collaboration.

RESULTS

PROJECT EVALUATION

The mean score for all participants on the items regarding perceived ability to adapt instruction was 4.4, somewhere between agree and strongly agree that the project increased their ability to make curricular and instructional adaptations for differing student needs

The mean score for all participants on the items regarding concern about ability to make adaptations was 2.4, somewhere between agree and feel neutral that the project increased their concern about being able to make adaptations. This result shows a disparity between students teachers perceived increased ability to adapt and their increased concern about their ability to adapt.

The mean score for all participants on the items regarding the perceived effect of on-line collaboration and feedback with the classroom teacher on reflection and subsequent increased ability to adapt was 4.0. This indicates agreement with the notion that the collaborative aspect of the project was a positive factor.

RESPONSES TO FEEDBACK

The case responses were not quantified, however, it was apparent to both the professor and the 5th grade teacher that the group responses to the on-line feedback demonstrated expanded reflection and adaptation ideas. An example follows:

Lesson-Making a Paper Hat Brim

Feedback–"How will different student work rates be accommodated?"

Response–"As the children needing more time receive individual attention, advanced children can measure their lengths of string in inches and centimeters and graph them according to size. Also, perhaps the bilingual students can prepare by taking the key vocabulary words home or to the bilingual specialist ahead of time for translation. These students can begin to build a multilingual wordbank."

DISCUSSION

To adequately prepare student teachers to work with diverse, special needs students in unpredictable and complex classroom environments, teacher preparation programs must go beyond traditional ways of teaching. This project attempted to combine two innovative methods of instruction, the case method and on-line collaboration.

The student teachers agreed that the cases and on-line collaboration increased their ability to adapt for inclusion of diverse learners, which was evident in their responses to the feedback, however, they also agreed that the project increased their concern about being able to make future accommodations. This seeming incongruence may be explained by the Concern's-Based Adoption Model [Hord et al, 1987]. According to this model, level of concern increases after initial exposure to a new experience or innovation. This can be considered positive, increased concern is evidence of awareness and may promote attention to the problem. Concerns develop about management of the problem as experiences vary and skills expand.

Perhaps cases, with multiple representations and views, can prepare students teachers to be flexible in dealing with changing problem situations and diversity. Spiro and Jehng [1990] explain flexible cognition theory as the ability to spontaneously restructure one's knowledge, in many ways, in an adaptive response to radically changing demands. They describe classrooms as fitting their theoretical definition of ill-structuredness where expert teachers respond demonstrating behaviors resulting from flexible cognition. Spiro et al [1988] observed that emerging technologies provide ideal environments for creating non-linear representations of knowledge. The Andres ability, then, to respond to cases on-line, and then interactively collaborate with a real-life expert about these responses, may begin to promote the reflection and cognitive flexibility demonstrated by expert teachers.

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EVOLVING A CASE STUDY MODEL FOR ONLINE DELIVERY

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Abstract

This paper describes and evaluates a project to develop multimedia cases on the World Wide Web (WWW). The project was initially aimed at exploring the Web as a means of enhancing the traditional strengths of case studies and contributing to improved learning outcomes. As a consequence of observations arising from the development and assessment of the first case, an alternative case design was developed which is aimed at concurrently meeting the demands of learners, responding to institutional forces and exploiting the potential of Web technologies.

INTRODUCTION

Beliefs about the nature, form and content of an effective teaching case need to be reconsidered given the availability of new teaching technologies and the movement towards online' course delivery in Australian Higher Education. This paper describes a project that was aimed at demonstrating and assessing the potential of the WWW ("Web")[2] to enhance the traditional strengths of case studies and contribute to improved learning outcomes. While the cases described in this paper have been developed for specific management courses, the design parameters and lessons learned can be applied to other disciplines where case studies are used in the learning process.

CASE STUDIES

Case studies in business and management courses are a popular learning 'architecture'; their value lies in exploiting 'the basic human capacity to learn from stories' (Schank, 1994; 74), particularly stories that illuminate important management issues and problems. In Australian education, cases are seen as an important means of bridging the gap between theory and practice and of disseminating information within and between the education and business sectors. An influential government report on management education, Enterprising Nation or 'The Karpin Report' [1995], highlighted the need for case studies of Australian companies. Specifically, the Karpin Report recommended that case studies be developed as a means of linking management schools and industry, as a vehicle for exposing students to the 'value of enterprising and entrepreneurial behavior, and as a means of disseminating best practice in business management and management development throughout Australian businesses and management schools [1995; XLIV].

Typically case studies are structured to tell the 'story' of a manager, firm or situation. Students use the case story to acquire knowledge, develop hypotheses about management behavior, practice skills of analysis and problem solving and make decisions in a challenging but low-risk environment. Case studies emphasize situational analysis and action orientation [Christensen, 1987], therefore, they must be constructed to invite student involvement, allow for multiple interpretations and require students to make educated and considered decisions about appropriate courses of action [Hagel & Macneil, 1995].

Not all teaching cases are written to satisfy complex learning objectives. Case examples of companies, events or situations are used widely to demonstrate a teaching point in a textbook or lecture. These case materials are used to achieve less complex objectives such as understanding of terminology, understanding of facts and principles, or ability to explain, illustrate or calculate [Ebel, 19721. So, cases can vary along several dimensions. Leenders and Erskine [1973] identify these as the analytical, conceptual and material presentation dimensions. In developing a case for a particular teaching program, it is important that the choice of where to situate the case on each dimension is made explicit to ensure the case fits its teaching objectives.

Despite the importance of case studies in management education, research has revealed dissatisfaction with the available Australian management cases [Hagel and Macneil, 1995] and paper-based cases generally [Curtis and Gluck, 19931. Paper-based cases are 'constrained in their ability to evoke the complexity of organizations; they can restrict students to a linear exploration of the material and offer minimum opportunities for feedback or interaction' [Hagel and Zulian, 1996). Such limitations make it difficult for students to conduct in depth situational analysis, to understand the case context, to appreciate the open boundaries of the case issues or to examine the issues from multiple perspectives. To overcome these limitations, educators resort to longer cases that become tedious to read, use supplements such as videos to evoke context or divide the content into a series of separate cases. For external3 students, these problems of case studies are compounded by lack of access to case discussions or to supplementary materials. In addition to limitations arising from the typical mode of delivery of case studies, the central role of the case discussion is under threat. Increased resource constraints being experienced by the higher education sector in Australia are resulting in reduced class contact or larger class size.

INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT AND FORCES

Deakin University is one of Australia's 42 institutions of higher education. It has approximately 29,000 students enrolled in award courses with a further 28,000 enrolled in industry-based and professional programs. Deakin was founded in 1974 with the particular purpose of providing external studies programs. Approximately 41 per cent of students study off-campus.

Deakin's current Strategic Plan [1997] emphasizes the objective of being '..a national leader in flexible and life-long, professional learning and in the innovative and timely applications of information and communication technologies to teaching'. Deakin is not alone in this objective. A widespread interest by Australian universities in the application of new technologies to teaching is being driven by a number of factors including the increasing integration of Australia into the global economy, changing levels of government support for higher education and the growing use and importance of computer and communication technologies [Le Grew, 1997]. Demand, too, derives from the changing nature of the student body: increasingly students are choosing to study part-time and indicate a preference for more flexible delivery modes. They are familiar with computer technologies and expect to use these technologies in their tertiary studies. Combined, these factors are transforming teaching and learning; they are creating a new imperative for more learner centered models of instruction that are facilitated by new technologies and are more economical in their use of scarce teaching resources. With government operating grants to universities in Australia decreasing by 12-15 per cent over the period 1997 to 1999, all universities are under increasing pressure to reduce costs. Increasingly, they look to technology to provide the necessary cost savings and are, therefore, beginning to actively encourage academics to apply technology in the delivery of teaching programs.

MULTIMEDIA CASES AND THE WEB

Multimedia learning materials available on the Web have the potential to overcome many of the limitations of paper-based cases, improve access for off-campus students and limit the impact of declining funds available for traditional teaching modes. By multimedia we mean the use of two or more media to present information, coupled with features of non-linearity, dynamic links, interactivity and features that facilitate user-control.

Central to the case study architecture are multiple representations of information with complex interrelationships. To promote learning and to develop 'cognitive flexibility' in students, Spiro et al [1988,379] argues that a case should be constructed to be 'crisscrossed in many directions to master its complexity and to avoid having the fullness of the domain attenuated'. The interconnected node and link structure of interactive multimedia environments has the capacity to create these rich contexts, organize and convey ill-structured information and provide numerous ways by which students can explore the learning materials [Spiro and Jehng, 1990]. Rather than passively turning pages, the student is actively involved in constructing knowledge [Jonassen, 1991]. Multimedia can enhance student control of the pace, direction and management of learning [Kinzie and Berdel, 1990].

Further, multimedia enables learning materials to be used in multiple ways by the design of different 'overlays' [Park and Hannafin, 1993]. For example, the design overlay may allow students to follow a chronological pathway through the case story; or the student may apply frameworks common to the discipline of the study. This attribute of multimedia learning materials offers economy of scope in the use of case studies and is valuable in an environment of cost control and scarce development resources.

Coupling the advantages of multimedia with those of the Web creates added opportunities for developing more effective teaching cases. The hypertext features incorporated in the Web mean that different documents can be linked to others on the same server, or to documents on different servers. These documents can contain information in multiple formats and they may be created in numerous applications. Students can access a spreadsheet, a word processing package or a database as the case study requires it. In addition, they can be directed to access external sites that may complement or extend the teaching materials.

Further, the Web environment allows students to add information to the case and share ideas with others. A number of studies have highlighted the value of allowing users to annotate the text and conference with fellow students [see Evans, 1993 and Horton, 1990]. Linking a Web site to electronic mail can give students direct access to other users and the lecturer, while they are engaged in the learning task. This is particularly valuable to external students who can now participate in discussions about the case studies in their learning program.

Finally, the Web enables 'just-in-time' distribution of teaching materials to a geographically dispersed and increasing student population. The online delivery of learning materials, and indeed, entire programs of study, is set for significant growth as universities attempt to expand their markets both domestically and internationally, and respond to student demand for greater flexibility in the time, place and mode of their study. For the universities, and their Government paymasters, the promise of both economies of scale and scope are fueling the drive towards online delivery.

WEB CASE PROJECT

The three case studies described in this paper were the result of an ongoing project to demonstrate and assess the potential of the Web environment and its associated technologies to support the development and delivery of more effective teaching cases. The project occurred in two main phases. Case 1 was the outcome of phase one of the project, and Cases 2 and 3 were the outcome of the second phase. Table 1 compares the three cases on a number of key dimensions: award level, case objective, and analytical, conceptual and material presentation dimensions.

PHASE ONE: SOUTHERN BRAKES AND PLASTICS

While there existed a general interest in case teaching among academics in the Bowater School of Management and Marketing at Deakin University, the project was initiated when funds became available through a Commonwealth Government Grants scheme. These competitive grants were specifically aimed at giving academics the opportunity of developing their skills in the production of multimedia teaching materials. The grant provided for a project mentor with technical expertise and experience in multimedia, and for some teaching release for the project team members.

The project team chose to develop a case study that would be used in Strategic Management courses but would have sufficient flexibility to be used in other management units. The planning stage began with identifying learning objectives for the teaching program and then determining how these learning objectives could be best realized in a case format. In choosing a setting for the case it was important to identify one which would suit a multimedia environment and would provide a focal point for organizing the case material. The setting chosen was a company board meeting. In keeping with the recommendations of the Karpin Report and to maintain as much realism as possible in developing the story of the case, assistance was sort from a medium-sized Australian manufacturing company, Pacific BBA. Reference to earlier paper-based cases on the company prepared by a project team member[4], and further discussions with the company, lead to the conception of a fictional company: Southern Brakes and Plastics.

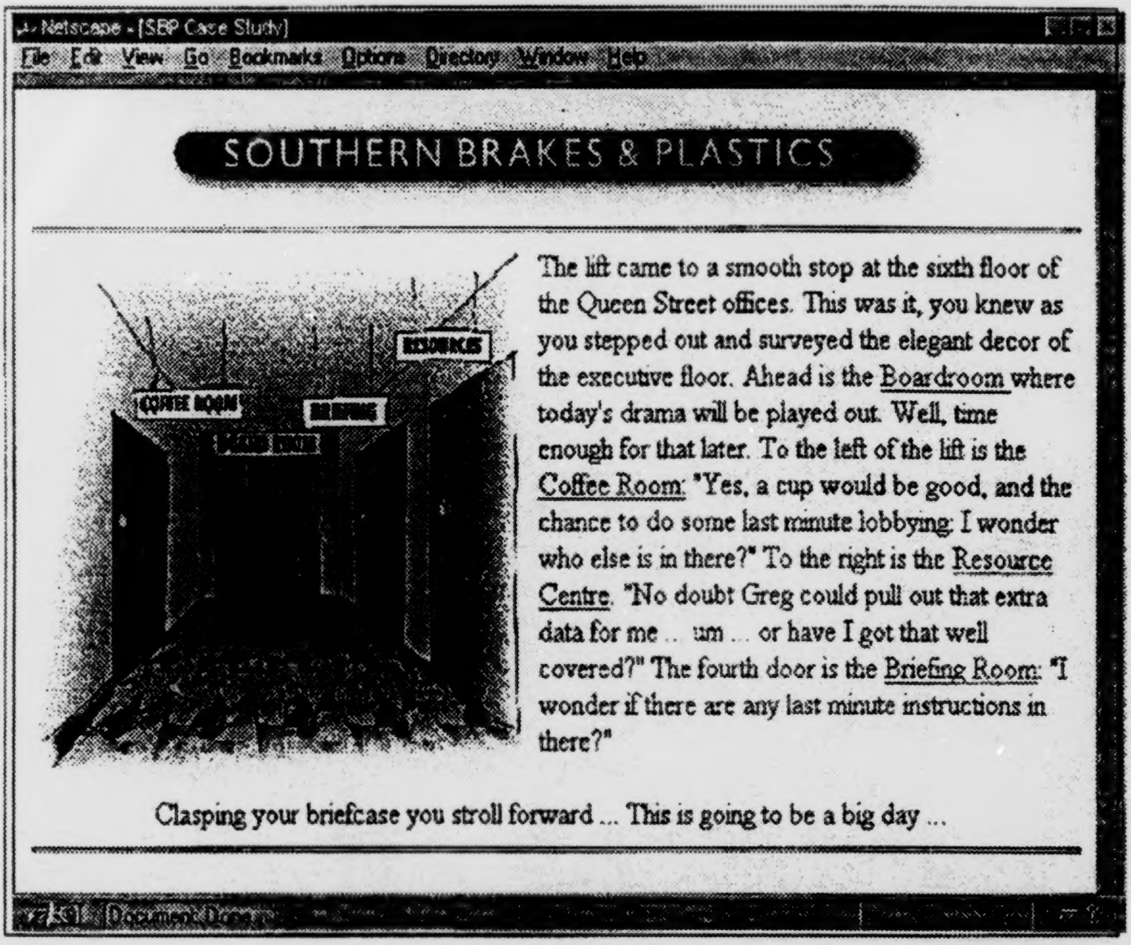
TABLE I
COMPARISON OF THREE WEB-BASED CASE STUDIES

	Case 1: **Southern Brakes**	**Case 2:** **Marketing Plan**	**Case 3:** **International Business**
Award level	undergraduate Year 3	undergraduate Year 1	post-graduate
Case objective	develop ability to identify issues and alternatives and present appropriate action program	induct students into process of developing a marketing plan for a particular company	induct students into process of country situation analysis
Analytical dimension	decision or case issue requires considerable judgement	case issue is given; framework for analysis is given	decision requires considerable judgement; framework for analysis is given
Conceptual dimension	concepts of medium difficulty; directed combination of concepts	concept is simple; directed combination of concepts	concepts of medium difficulty; undirected combination of concepts
Material presentation dimension	large amount of case information structured in intuitive format; no support material; moderate extraneous information	small amount of case information; support materials highly structured; minimum extraneous information	small amount of case information; no support materials; extensive extraneous information

(URL for case sites is: http://www2.deakin.edu.au/bowater/Case-Study/case_study.htm)

Significant thought was required to design a case structure that was suitable for an electronic platform. The aim was to provide an environment in which students could enter spaces, read information and perform tasks and in so doing, experience a 'real' organization facing authentic issues. The learning material was grouped into virtual spaces - four main headings under which all information could be logically placed. These spaces became rooms in a building: the Board Room, where the main story of the case transpires; the Resources Room, containing a variety of industry and company information; the Briefing Room, where the instructor can place instructions and tasks for students; and the Coffee Room, a place to have an informal chat with other students' or leave messages for instructors. All four rooms are accessed from a foyer (see Figure 1). Despite the different environment of the case, a traditional case approach has been used in that the student is asked to play the role of decision-maker based on an analysis of the case data and situation.

FIGURE 1
COMPANY FOYER


Netscape - [SBP Case Study]
File Edit View Go Bookmarks Options Directory Window Help
COFFEE ROOM
BRIEFING
RESOURCES
Document: Done

SOUTHERN BRAKES & PLASTICS

The lift came to a smooth stop at the sixth floor of the Queen Street offices. This was it, you knew as you stepped out and surveyed the elegant decor of the executive floor. Ahead is the Boardroom where today's drama will be played out. Well, time enough for that later. To the left of the lift is the Coffee Room: "Yes, a cup would be good, and the chance to do some last minute lobbying: I wonder who else is in there?" To the right is the Resource Centre. "No doubt Greg could pull out that extra data for me .. um ... or have I got that well covered?" The fourth door is the Briefing Room: "I wonder if there are any last minute instructions in there?"

Clasping your briefcase you stroll forward ... This is going to be a big day ...

The case content for Southern Brakes and Plastics includes: the transcript of a board meeting, board documents, financial data, product and industry information, site maps, background on and secret agendas of board members and task requirements. While much of this information would be found in a paper-based case, the form of the content and the way it is structured differs considerably. Features of Case I include:

- Flexibility. The case is designed to develop and grow over time. Instructors or students can add material to the case. Instructors can change the learning objectives, and direct students to different tasks. Students can select different pathways through the case.
- Links to external sites. A number of external links have been included. Some to add interest to the case and others to allow students to gather current industry information.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

- Decision support. Students can manipulate the financial data of the case via links to Excel spreadsheets.
- Communication and feedback. A chat and an electronic mail facility are included to provide better access to external students.
- Navigation. Site maps and icons are used to allow ease of navigation between rooms.
- Evaluation questionnaire. An evaluation form is incorporated in the site. This enables the instructor to get real time information about the number of users of the site and the reactions of students to the case.

To date, Case 1 has been used primarily in a laboratory situation with two undergraduate classes studying a Strategic Management unit in a Bachelor of Commerce program. The case is a substitute for one of the four paper-based cases the students analyze during the course of a semester. Students' evaluation of the case have been very positive. Through the embedded electronic evaluation form they are able to give feedback on a number of technical and educational issues. Indicative findings on several items are listed in Table 2.

TABLE 2
SUMMARY OF STUDENT RESPONSES TO EVALUATION SURVEY

Item	Percentage of students who 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' with this statement.
The website reinforced my knowledge of Strategic Management.'	79%
'The electronic medium made learning about Strategic Management more enjoyable.'	65%
'It was easy to find my way around the website.'	78%
'The language of the website was clear and comprehensible.'	85%
'I found it easy to gain access to the website in the campus laboratories.'	83%

(A five point scale was used in the evaluation form.)

In addition to student evaluation, Phase one of the project has been subject to continual evaluation by the project team, the project advisory group and academic peers. Apart from the content and educational value of the case, the evaluation has been in terms of the technical stability and management of the site, development time and the resources required.

We believe that Case 1 does demonstrate the potential of the Web to create the rich and complex case environments required for traditional management case studies. Its ability to incorporate different media, interlink different documents and sites, support different applications and provide access to the Internet makes the Web a very suitable environment for case studies. Further, Web pages are easy to develop; the Web is accessible to students, independent of hardware and authoring tools are cheap and readily available. There has been remarkable and continuing increase in the use of the Web. However, until a broader bandwidth is introduced, the down loading of pages will continue to be slow thereby inhibiting the use of sound and video. In our institution, a continuing concern is the reliability of the server itself and the network on which it relies. If either become inoperable, so too does the teaching material. The cost to students of using the Web must also be considered. Although laboratories are provided on campus at Deakin, increasing emphasis is placed on students possessing their own equipment and funding their own Internet provision.

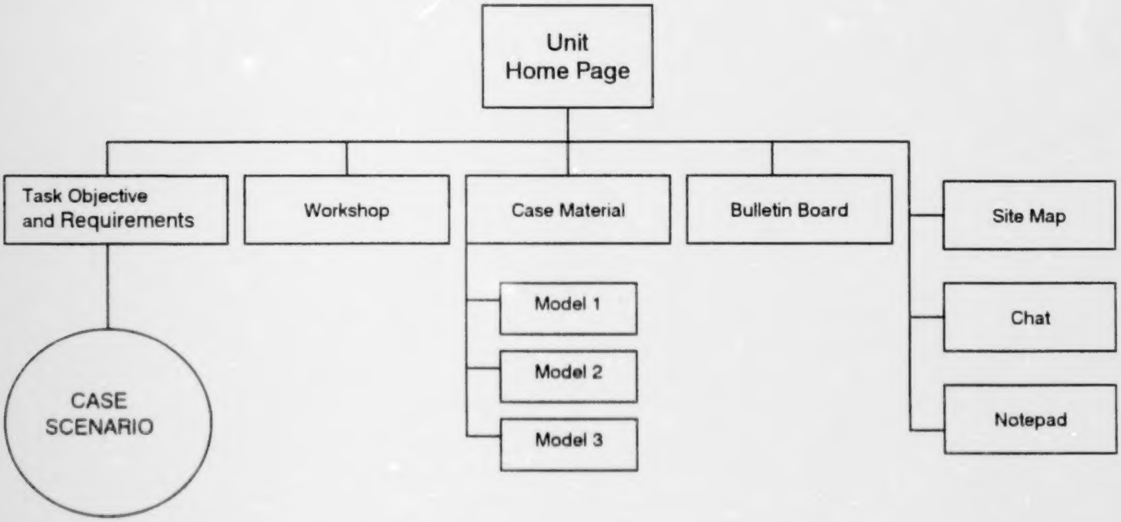
In reflecting on the development of Case 1, it is clear that such educational developments require a substantial commitment of resources for both the development and maintenance of learning materials and for the necessary technological infrastructure. Southern Brakes and Plastics is a large case study with over 250 separate files of data. It is costly in student-user time and in maintenance. Our assessment of the experience in developing Case 1 lead to the second phase of the project.

PHASE TWO: GENERIC SHELL

Phase Two of the project was funded by a Commonwealth Government Grant aimed at supporting innovations in teaching practice. The goal of the project team was to develop a 'shell' for the delivery of case studies on the Web. The shell was to be structured to accommodate a variety of teaching cases and to incorporate a number of features and tools that would be generic to any management case study delivered on the Web. The intention of the project was to develop case materials that were not labor intensive in their use of academic time, that could be easily updated and would hold their currency over a longer period. Further, the specific needs of external students were considered in attempting to provide them with all the necessary information, support and tools necessary to ,experience' a case in the absence of a face-to-face case class discussion.

A danger with hypertext based materials is that the structure becomes too complex for the student to navigate with ease [Laurillard, 1993]. In Case 1 different features were included to try and avoid this difficulty, and the evaluation indicated that students did not find navigation a problem (see Table 2). However, ease of navigation became a key design objective in developing the additional cases. This was achieved through adopting a common and logical structure which includes: case scenario, task requirements, case materials and model solutions. The generic tools of the shell include: bulletin board, site map, chat facility and notepad. The structure of the shell is illustrated in Figure 2.

FIGURE 2
GENERIC CASE SHELL



The cases developed in Phase Two were a Marketing case for use in an undergraduate program, and an International Business case for use at the postgraduate level. Both include a case 'scenario' about a particular company. In the Marketing case the scenario, about a real Australian company, is used to teach students the steps and skills in developing a marketing plan. Students can access the workshop (see Figure 2) to learn how to write a marketing plan. The International Business case is somewhat different, although it is designed to fit within the same shell. In this case, students are required to develop a strategy for a company wishing to enter a foreign market. Students are expected to use the Web for their research. The chat facility plays a vital role in this case as students have to present their finished strategies at an online, board meeting of the company. This requirement has a practical purpose as the unit is completed by external studies, and the students are dispersed throughout Australia and overseas. The chat facility gives students the opportunity to participate in an online case discussion.

Table I identifies the characteristics of Cases 2 and 3 and contrasts them to the first case. Clearly, the later cases are designed to achieve different learning objectives than the Southern Brakes and Plastics Case and vary somewhat from the traditional notion of a teaching case. However, we believe this new form of case will be more sustainable in a Web environment and more cost efficient to produce as the case scenario can be changed readily while the support tutorials (workshops) and other materials remain the same. The cases produced in Phase Two will be trialed and evaluated during 1998.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of the project described in this paper was to demonstrate and assess the potential of the Web environment to enhance the traditional strengths of case studies and contribute to improved learning outcomes. We believe that the first case, Southern Brakes and Plastics does illustrate the potential of the Web to create the rich context required for an effective teaching case; encourage student involvement and control over their own learning environment; and, support online communication between groups of students and students and their instructors. The educational merit of the case, as with any case study, is more difficult to confirm as the learning outcomes for individual students are dependent on many factors, only some of which are within the control of the designers of educational materials.

Our own evaluation of Case 1 lead us to conclude that the nature, form and content of a teaching case may need to be reconsidered when delivered via the Web. The character of the technology and of online delivery, in addition to the resource constraints of Australian universities, serve to reinforce our conclusion that the online case study experience is, and must be, different from that of the paper- based case. Cases 2 and 3 are our response to this finding. These cases represent a more generic learning framework with application for a wide variety of management cases.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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ENDNOTES

1. 'Online' refers here to the delivery of teaching courses electronically via a computer network.

2. A set of text-based documents and associated transmission protocols which allow the easy linking of documents via hypertext.

3. 'External' refers to students who are enrolled in a course by distance education. ('External', 'distance education' and 'off campus' are used interchangeably in Australia.) For these students, written study guides are a substitute for lectures and tutorials. With the increasing use of online delivery, the distinction between external and on campus students is becoming obsolete.

4. The Pacific BBA cases were written by Professor Darrell Mahoney of Deakin University in 1994. These cases are available through the University of Melbourne Case Library.

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THE INTERNET AND THE CASE STUDY METHOD: AN ACCOUNTING EXAMPLE

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Abstract

This paper discusses how accounting education can be enhanced by combining use of the Internet with the case study method. As an illustration a specific case "DuPont and Seagram" is used. In 1995 DuPont and Seagram entered into a complex stock repurchase agreement centered on the skillful utilization of Sections 302 and 318 of the Internal Revenue Code. The transaction caused significant consternation in the financial press and in Congress since it enabled Seagram to avoid approximately $1.5 billion in federal income taxes. To answer the case questions students must examine the 10K forms for DuPont and Seagram and DuPont's financial statements. The case can be used as a traditional, print-based case; however, we show how the use of the Internet and computer based communication facilities helps to implement the objectives of the Accounting Education Change Commission. The case can be accessed on the Internet at:

http://www.csun. edu/~ hfact004/dupont.html

INTRODUCTION

This paper describes how through a combination of the case method and the Internet several important objectives for accounting education can be addressed. While the case involves U.S. accounting and tax rules, the pedagogical and technological issues addressed are applicable to education in general, not only in the U.S., but internationally as well. In the first section we briefly describe the teaching objectives and how they are accomplished. The second section contains the actual case used as an illustration.

IMPLEMENTATION OF ACCOUNTING EDUCATION OBJECTIVES

The DuPont and Seagram case is designed to serve several educational objectives stressed by the Accounting Education Change Commission.[1] [AEEC, 1990]:

Acquisition of technical knowledge
Communication skills and critical thinking skills
Active and collaborative learning
Use of technology

ACQUISITION OF TECHNICAL KNOWLEDGE

One of the objectives of the AEEC is that accounting education should be taught in a manner that integrates the various areas of accounting which traditionally are taught in separate courses. "DuPont and

Seagram" is an example of how this can be accomplished even in "normal" accounting and tax courses. The case is centered on a complex stock repurchase transaction that exploits a "loophole" in the tax law. Students in a financial accounting course are therefore introduced to the effect tax law has on financial accounting and business decision making. On the other hand, when the case is used in a corporate tax course, students are required to refresh their knowledge of financial accounting issues.

COMMUNICATION AND CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS

One of the most heavily stressed topics in recent years has been the need to integrate communication and critical thinking skills in the accounting curriculum. Both of these issues are addressed in the case assignments.

Students are required to prepare a formal report of their findings.

Provisions are made for oral (group) presentations and discussion.

Several questions require that students examine critically specific issues. For example, in one question they must evaluate the "fairness" of certain provisions of the tax code. Another question asks for a critical evaluation of an article in a popular newsmagazine relating to the case.

ACTIVE AND COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

The case forces students to go beyond textbook materials and actively research accounting and tax issues through the study of actual documents and the tax code. By providing only minimal information in the case narrative, the relevant information is not "force-fed." Instead students must read original documents. As a result students develop an understanding of the complexity and richness of the amount of information included in required financial statements.

It is, of course, possible to treat the case as an individual assignment. We prefer to have students work in groups with four to five members each. This has a number of advantages, particularly for a case such as "DuPont and Seagram" which requires extensive research and writing. A second way in which the case assignment utilizes collaborative learning is the "draft, review, revise" feature. Each group must prepare a draft report and submit it to the class. Class members are then required to critique the draft reports and provide comments designed to improve not only the technical content, but also the writing of the report. Based on the input received, each group then prepares a final version of the report.

The objectives discussed above can certainly be accomplished by using a traditional "paper" case. However, for students to obtain original documents, prepare and distribute the draft reports; review and comment; and revise them in the traditional manner would be a lengthy process. Realistically, the time required would be appropriate for a semester project. We, however, view this case as one of a series of cases to be completed during the semester. The solution to the problem is the use of technology.

USE OF TECHNOLOGY

Significant pressure is currently being exerted on faculty to use computer technology and specifically the Internet for teaching. Many of these efforts are concerned with "distance learning," a subject that is still viewed with skepticism by many educators[2]. However, the technology also can be used to enhance teaching without eliminating face to face interaction among students and faculty. We used the Internet in several ways to make the case assignment discussed above feasible and, we dare say, enjoyable for the students.

The case itself is posted on the "web"

Students use E-mail and a "majordomo" list server to communicate with each other and with the instructor.

Advantages of Posting the Case on the "Web"[3]

Posting the case on the web made it possible to enhance it through the inclusion of pictures, company logos, and links to relevant web sites. Inclusion of pictures and logos makes the case more interesting and "real" for students. The most important advantage, however, is the ability to provide direct links to the required reference materials. The case was written in such a manner that original documents (annual reports, statements filed with the Securities and Exchange Commission, corporate press releases) must be studied to answer the case questions. In a traditional case format excerpts from these documents are included in the case. We believe, however, that students should be exposed to actual documents to gain a richer understanding of financial reporting. In a traditional library research mode, obtaining these materials would be very time consuming and likely to cause intense frustration. Essentially all information needed to complete the assignment can be found by utilizing the links included in the reference page of the case (Html version). For example, company web sites, forms 10K and 10Q, press releases, and articles related to the case; other links provide direct connections to the Internal Revenue Service, the Securities and Exchange Commission, etc. Some additional material requires the use of Lexis-Nexis or traditional library research; however, the assignment can be completed without these references. By providing direct links, students focus on the actual assignment rather than on obtaining the materials. We have found that having direct links to information sources has another benefit: Students used the links not only to answer the case questions, but further explored the source documents for additional information relating to their studies.

Advantages of Using E-mail and Majordomo

As discussed above, the assignment requires each group to prepare a draft report. The draft is then distributed electronically to the class via a majordomo list server. Class members use E-mail to provide feedback directly to members of the originating group. One obvious advantage of using an electronic means of communication is the significant amount of time that is saved in transmitting information among students. A second advantage is that the instructor can easily monitor the extent to which each member of the class participates. A major disadvantage of the use of the majordomo list server is the enormous volume of E-mail that is quickly generated. We used this method because of technical problems with the News Group feature on our University's server. We plan to use a "Hyper News Discussion Forum" instead in the future. Despite the overload problem, students indicated that they found the feedback received from classmates highly beneficial.

THE CASE: DUPONT AND SEAGRAM THE ULTIMATE DIVIDEND

THE COMPANIES

E. I. DU PONT DE NEMOURS AND COMPANY

"...better living through alchemy" [Sloan, 1995]

E. I. Du Pont de Nemours and Company (DuPont) was founded in 1802 and incorporated in 1915, making it one of the oldest existing companies in the United States. It is also one of the world's largest companies and *the* largest chemical company. In addition, through its Conoco subsidiary, DuPont is among the top ten U.S. based petroleum and natural gas producers and refiners. Through its 50% ownership in DuPont Merck it is a major player in the pharmaceutical market. The company employs 97,000 people, operates in 70 countries and derives about 70% of its revenue from sales outside the U.S.

DuPont is perhaps best known as the company that gave the world Nylon and Mylar, and a myriad of other chemical products. Through the decades DuPont continued to grow and diversify into a number of related and unrelated businesses; with increased size came a commensurate growth in corporate bureaucracy in Wilmington, Delaware and Geneva (DuPont's European headquarter). By the end of the 1980's the company had become top heavy, sluggish and was faced with declining sales and tumbling profits. To turn the company around, DuPont in 1989 appointed Edgar S. Woolard Jr. as CEO. Under Woolard, DuPont shed layers of middle-management positions to streamline its sluggish decision making process and sold off $2.8 million worth of ill-fitting businesses. By 1995, DuPont had reduced overhead costs from $3.7 billion to $2.9 billion; $1 billion was shaved from supplier costs. Operating margins rose from 5.4% to 8% and cash flow from operations topped $5.9 billion. Sales and net income also continued to soar:

(In billions of dollars, except for EPS)

	1994	1995	1996
Sales	$39	42	44
Net Income	$2.7	3.2	3.6
EPS	$4	5.61	6.47[4]

All in all, Edgar Woolard had reason to be pleased with the company's performance under his leadership. However, one of his goals had not yet been accomplished: Through most of 1994 Woolard had been pondering ways to get some of DuPont's growing pile of cash to stockholders, Wall Street shared his concern and anticipated a stock buy back. The question was how to engineer such a buy back to provide the greatest benefit to DuPont and its stockholders? Various alternatives were examined and rejected. But then, in the spring of 1995, came a phone call from Edgar Bronfman Jr., the chairman of Seagram Co. A phone call that would provide the frosting on Woolard's and DuPont's cake, generate emotional media attention and give rise to cries of "there ought to be a law!"

JOSEPH SEAGRAM COMPANY, LTD

In 1919 family patriarch Samuel Bronfman ("Mr. Sam") founded what eventually would become a family-controlled, multi-national conglomerate. In 1928 he acquired the Joseph Seagram Company, (Seagram) which was incorporated in Canada in that year. Seagram was a small Canadian distiller and distributor of distilled spirits and it derived enormous benefits from prohibition (1919 to 1933) when it became a major supplier of liquor to the United States. It has 8,000 stockholders, but continues to be controlled by the Bronfman family. It's primary business until fairly recently has been the production and marketing of distilled spirits and wines More recently, the company expanded into other types of beverages, such as fruit juices (Tropicana, Dole juices), coolers, beer and mixers. The company had also developed a major real estate empire and expanded into the oil business in the United States. Until 1994 Edgar M. Bronfman was Chairman and Chief Executive Officer (CEO). In June 1994 his son, Edgar Bronfman Jr., was appointed CEO.

Edgar Bronfman Jr. had long been fascinated by Hollywood and wanted to become a major player in Tinseltown. To accomplish this goal he wanted Seagram to expand into the entertainment industry. In 1994, Seagram acquired a 14.5% stake in Time Warner and rumors circulated that Bronfman planned a take over. However, as it developed, Time Warner objected to Seagram's advances and threatened to invoke a "poison pill" defense against any take-over attempt. Bronfman changed directions and decided to focus on MCA. Acquisition of 80% of MCA would give Bronfman a studio (Universal), a record company (Geffen Records), the Universal Studios theme park and merchandising operations. The only thing lacking was a television network. One problem remained to be solved: How to finance the $5.7 billion purchase price. That was when Bronfman thought of DuPont.

SEAGRAM, CONOCO AND DUPONT

In 1981 Seagram attempted to take over Conoco, on of the major oil and gas producing companies in the U.S. Seagram acquired 27.7 million of the outstanding 86 million shares of Conoco, giving it a 32.2% interest. However, DuPont also had designs on Conoco, resulting in a bidding war between Seagram and DuPont. When it became obvious that DuPont would emerge as the winner in the contest for Conoco, Seagram tendered its 32.2% of Conoco in exchange for 24.3% of DuPont stock. By 1995 Seagram was DuPont's largest single shareholder with 4 seats on DuPont's board of directors. The investment accounted for 70% of Seagram's earnings, and in 1994 it provided Seagram with $299 million in dividends. But Bronfman was much more interested in filmmaking than in the stodgy chemical business and thus the fateful phone call in which he offered to sell back most of Seagram's DuPont stock. Edgar Woolard was delighted. Here was an opportunity for a major reduction in the number of DuPont shares outstanding, resulting in significant benefits to remaining DuPont stockholders and to the company. The normal method would have been a simple repurchase and retirement of the shares in question at the then approximate market price of $62 per share. While the size of the transaction (156 million shares) would have merited mention in the financial press, most likely it would have been covered in a one-paragraph statement and would not have drawn the outraged attention of Congress.

But the deal announced by DuPont on April 6, 1995 was far from simple and straightforward.

THE DEAL

DuPont paid Seagram $1 billion in cash and $7.3 billion in 90-day notes and issued 156 million warrants to Seagram in exchange for 156 million shares of DuPont. The total transaction was valued at $8.739 billion. The warrants were redeemable according to the following schedule:

48 million at a price of $89/share during a 60 day period ending October 30, 1997
54 million at a price of $101/share during a 60 day period ending October 30, 1998 and
54 million at a price of $114/share during a 60 day period ending October 30, 1999

To partially pay for the stock repurchase DuPont sold 22.727 million shares for $1.747 billion (including 7.8 million shares that were "sold" to its pension fund for $500 million). An additional 24 million shares were "sold" to the company's "Flexitrust"[5] for $1.626 billion.

DuPont was pleased, since instead of paying $62 per share, it acquired the stock for only $56.25 per share, a savings of about $900 million, in addition to a $744 million tax free "gain" on the sale of stock. Far from being unhappy over the below market price, Seagram was also pleased. It was able to turn what normally would have been a fully taxable capital gain (tax: $2.1 billion) into a lightly taxed dividend (tax: $615 million). (For tax purposes Seagram carried the DuPont stock at a cost of $18 per share)

The stock market was also pleased with DuPont, the price per share increased from about $62 to $66. Who was not pleased? Well, for one, Allan Sloan, Newsweek's Wall Street editor, who characterized the transaction as an "outrage," a "pretty slick" way for DuPont to realize an approximately $500 million tax free "gain" [Sloan, 1995]. Congress was not too thrilled either and vowed to close the particular tax loophole through which DuPont and Seagram had managed to crawl. If one agrees with Sloan and certain members of the House Ways and Means Committee, U.S taxpayers should not be too happy either, since according to Sloan the loss to the treasury amounts to about $2 billion. Finally, Seagram investors were unhappy; they signaled their displeasure through a 16% drop in the price of Seagram stock.

POSTSCRIPT

1996: DuPont and Seagram resolved the issue of the warrants

1997: Seagram acquired the 50% of the USA network it did not already own from Viacom for $1.7 billion. In October of 1997, Seagram sold most of Universal's television assets to the Home Shopping Network (HSN) in exchange for $1.2 billion in cash and a 45% stake in HSN.

SUGGESTED CASE QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

FINANCIAL ACCOUNTING

- Prepare journal entries to record the various events described above for both DuPont and Seagram, beginning with the 1981 acquisition of Conoco stock by Seagram.
- Explain why Seagram only had to pay $615 million in taxes as a result of the stock repurchase and only $20 million as a result of the repurchase of the warrants.
- Why did DuPont issue the warrants to Seagram? What did DuPont do with the 156 million shares in 1995? In 1996? Why?
- What was the value of the warrants? How do you think this value was determined? Did Seagram pay

anything for them?

- What has happened to the warrants? Why? Reconstruct the appropriate journal entries (Seagram and DuPont).
- Why did investors "reward" DuPont but "punish" Seagram?
- Determine the market price per share for DuPont stock in 1994; 1995; 1996; and the most recent date. Do the same for Seagram.
- Determine what happened to DuPont's stock in the spring of 1997. Prepare any required journal entries. What effect had this event of DuPont's stock price? Hint: check the "news release" file for March 1997 in DuPont's web page.
- Determine DuPont's earnings per share (EPS) in 1994, 1995, 1996, calculate what EPS would have been if the "Seagram" shares had not been repurchased.
- Determine the effect of the stock repurchase on Seagram's net income and EPS in 1994; 1995; and 1996.
- Evaluate Seagram's decision to sell the DuPont stock.
- Critically evaluate the article "Stocking Up on Loopholes" by Allan Sloan, *Newsweek*. May 15, 1995, p. 66. Do you agree or disagree with Sloan's comments? Why or why not?

Note: To answer the questions you will need to study the Seagram's and DuPont's forms 10k and 10Q and DuPont's annual report. You may also find the news releases in the DuPont web page particularly useful.

TAX QUESTIONS

What is the Dividends Received Deduction? Hint: Read IRC Sec. 243
What is the purpose of the Dividend Received Deduction?
Why are there three Dividend Received Deductions (70%, 80%, and 100%)?
What is redemption? Hint: Read IRC Sec. 317
Sec. 302(a) provides for four opportunities (Sec. 302 (b)(1), (2), (3), (4)) for redemption to be treated as a sale or exchange. Explain the four opportunities. (suggested order (4), (3), (2), (1))
Evaluate the four opportunities against the Seagrams/DuPont facts.
If none of the four opportunities are met, Sec. 302 (d) states the redemption is treated as a distribution to which Sec. 301 applies. What is the result therefrom?
Do taxpayers usually want Sec. 302(b) to apply? Why?
How would you calculate the $615 million of tax to Seagrams?
If Sec. 302 were to apply, how much would the tax have been? Show calculation.
What was the key element in the structure of the transaction that led to dividend treatment?
Why did Seagrams keep 8.2 million shares of DuPont?
Perform the three percentage tests required by Sec. 302(b)(2). Hint: Read Sec. 302(c)(1).
Read Rev. Rul. 89-64. Did it hold in favor of the taxpayer or the government? How did this help Seagrams?
Read the Supreme Court case of Davis. 397 US 301 (1970), 70-1 USTC 9289, 25 AFTR2d 70-827. What are the four important principles resulting from this case?
Read Rev. Rul. 75-502, Rev. Rul. 75-512, and Rev. Rul. 76-385. How would you evaluate Sec. 302(b)(1) in light of these three rulings and the Davis case?
Do you believe Seagram's solution to be correct within the IRC? Why?
Do you believe Seagram's solution to be fair?
What happened to Seagram's basis in the 154 million shares redeemed?

ENDNOTES

1. For a discussion of the AEEC objectives for Accounting education see Williams [1993]
2. See, for example, Turgeon and Barbieri [1996]

3. The case can be accessed on the internet at: http://www.csun.edu/~hfact004/dupont.html
4. Source: DuPont Form 10K, 1996
5. The "Flexitrust" is used to satisfy DuPont's obligations under its stock-option program.

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USING INTERNET TECHNOLOGY TO ENHANCE THE LEARNING EXPERIENCE IN AN AUDITING COURSE

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Abstract

This communication highlights the original use of Internet in an auditing course. The experience was conducted with a group of 85 students completing a degree in public accountancy. It displays how the Internet can enhance the teaching of management and accounting by simultaneously facilitating the learning of key concepts introduced in the classroom and supplying the students with hands-on Internet experience. I will share with you the important phases of this experiment: getting started, the unfolding of events, the implementation modalities and the key lessons learnt and will conclude with a summary of some of the future opportunities and limitations one can expect when using Internet technology in an academic setting.

INTRODUCTION

"When we draw the balance-sheet of new sites, users and connected countries, we observe that the Internet revolution is growing at a phenomenal rate. In 1996, the web accounted for 50 million pages. Currently, we can count up to 100 million."[1]

Today, the accounting profession faces numerous new challenges.[2] These can be explained, to some extent, by the increasing responsibilities the profession must assume and similarly by its necessity to maintain the high standards that have always underlined its prestige and credibility. Market globalization, increased complexity of organizations, trade internationalization and multiple regulations are but a few of the variables that will henceforth influence accounting procedures and force significant change in the auditor's field work.

In these times of continuous change, the auditor must simultaneously exercise command over his/her profession's[3] ever-expanding body of knowledge and assure his/her quick access to the information required to successfully complete the field work. In this respect, the Internet network offers many opportunities yet to be explored and it will, in the very near future, represent an essential source of reference for all auditors who need to consult and remain abreast of the most up-to-date procedures surrounding the field of auditing.

Conscious of the growing impact of these new technologies on the auditor's field work, we wanted to encourage our students to discover the resources harbored by the World of electronic information. Hence, during the Fall trimester of 1997, we piloted a first experiment in the use of the Web in the course "External Audit: Elementary Concepts ."

In presenting this pedagogical experiment, we will define the context in which the auditing course was taught, the technical modalities surrounding the use of the Internet, the results obtained, the difficulties encountered and we will expose some resulting conclusions. In sharing our approach, we are convinced of the numerous possibilities of developing other Internet applications in the teaching of management and accounting courses. By drawing lessons from this first experiment, we will surely find other ways to exploit the World of Virtual Information and, in so doing, improve our teaching methods and just maybe, better prepare our students to exercise their chosen profession.

THE CONTEXT

To embrace a career as a Chartered Accountant, the student at the École de Hautes Études Commerciales (HEC) of Montréal (Canada) must complete a total of eleven (11) credits in auditing, chosen within the concentration of "public accounting," from both undergraduate and graduate courses. The first course, worth three credits, discusses and presents the elementary concepts of the external audit. As a rule, when the student begins the course[4], he/she only possesses a rudimentary knowledge of audit procedures and very little understanding of the auditor's actual work.

However, since the students are confronted quickly with the procedures and concepts of the field work, thanks to the use of case studies and problem resolution techniques, by mid-trimester they normally are able to identify the principal practices of an audit. To position the general orientation of the course "External Audit: Elementary Concepts and Corroboration," you will find below a description of its objectives, its place in the university program and field of specialization, as well as the subject matter presented in the course outline.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

The course is meant to initiate the student to the Year End Audit as undertaken by an independent public accountant. In this perspective, it presents and explains the elementary concepts and standards applied when completing an audit. More precisely, its aim is to communicate the knowledge required to understand the purpose, process and techniques of the external audit, as it is used in the context of a strategy based mainly on substantive procedures. It also strives to develop the student's ability to diagnose and apply the appropriate audit procedures.

CONTRIBUTION TO THE PROGRAM AND SPECIALIZATION OBJECTIVES

This is the first of a series of courses in the "professional Accounting" concentration. Its purpose is to train students following the Chartered Accountant track in the field of external auditing. In this context, it presents a bird's view of the audit and its fundamental concepts. After completing this course, the student should possess the requirements to follow the subsequent course "External Auditing: Comprehension and Appreciation of Internal Controls" and to appreciate the differences in the approaches applied in these two first auditing courses.

SUBJECT MATTER PRESENTED IN THE COURSE OUTLINE

Bloc 1: Auditing - Elementary Concepts

I *Introduction (Course 1 and 2)*
  A. *Purpose of External Auditing*
  B. *Auditing Standards*
  C. *The Auditor's Report*
II *Audit Evidence (Course 3 and 4)*
  A. *Assertions*
  B. *Methods to Obtain Audit Evidence*
  C. *Reliability and Appropriateness of Audit Evidence*
  D. *Types of Auditing Procedures*
  E. *Audit Evidence Originating from Specialists and other Auditors*
  F. *Particularities*
III *Introduction to the Strategy and Auditing Approaches (Courses 5 to 8)*

A. *Introduction to the Audit Risk Model*
B. *Materiality*
C. *Sufficient Audit Evidence*
D. *Computer Assisted and Manual Audit Techniques*

Bloc 2: Substantive Audit Procedures Related to the Financial Statement (Courses 8 to 13)

I *Salaries*
II *Sales - Receipts and Accounts Receivable*
III *Purchases - Disbursements and Accounts Payable*
IV *Stocks*
V *Cash*
VI *Long Term Items*

For the most part, the students have no work experience in external auditing and therefore they sometimes have problems linking the concepts covered in class with their use for solving problems in the work field. One of these difficulties involves retrieving complementary information in order to benchmark the elements referred to in the audit engagement. Furthermore, since one of the goals of this first course is to facilitate the integration of basic audit concepts with their application in substantive audit strategies, one of the students' practical assignments was to explore sources of information available on the Internet. In order to achieve this end, they were requested to undertake a search with the objective of answering the following question:

Are there web sites on the Internet that offer categories of information that can be used to support an audit engagement ?

To complete this research assignment, students had to (1) formulate a question susceptible to be asked in the context of an audit, (2) identify a pertinent audit theme and (3) search one or several sites supplying useful information in the practice of an audit.

THE IMPLEMENTATION MODALITIES

In the fall of 1997, the course "External Audit: Elementary Concepts " was taught to two groups for a total of eighty-five (85) students. Since all students did not share the same level of computer skills and that our main intention was to encourage student discussions on the difficulties facing the auditor in the context of an engagement, we opted for a team effort (maximum of three (3) students). This approach seemed appropriate for, in addition to facilitating the transfer of knowledge among the students, it also corresponded to the practical reality of an audit. That is, that the treatment of a file sometimes requires consulting a number of colleagues on points of interpretation or to clarify a sensitive issue.

In order to maximize the dissemination of the students' findings, an electronic billboard[5] was created to dispatch the contributions and redistribute them to every student in the course, regardless of the group she or he belonged to. Not only did the billboard facilitate the exchange of information, it also avoided repetition among entries as each person was required to check for duplications against their fellow students' prior contributions (send-off dates established precedence). Finally, the use of the electronic billboard offered each student who desired to do so, the opportunity of gathering a rich data-bank of sites relating to the practice of an audit.

For control and evaluation purposes, students were required to submit to the professor a printed copy of the send-off. The following directions were communicated to the students:

OBJECTIVES

During the semester, you must complete two research projects on the subject of the use of web sites as they apply to an audit. The objective is to attempt to answer questions facing the auditor while on engagement by using content appearing on web sites.

MODALITIES

I wish to mention from the forefront that the aim of this exercise is not to draw-up an exhaustive list of accounting, fiscal and audit web sites. You must identify a specific subject and find sites that will help you answer related questions. For instance, you may find that certain sites relevant to an audit are not labelled as such. You can suggest your own themes and questions.
Here are some examples of subjects:

- The Meaning of the Auditor's Report: In Canada? In Other Countries?
- Training and Expertise of the Chartered Accountant in Canada? Abroad?
- Knowledge by Industrial Sector (for example collect information pertaining to one of the following: Arts, Culture and Museums, Mining, Exploration, High Technology, Metallurgical, Education, etc. - aim to find sites that enrich your comprehension of the industry).
- Gathering Audit Evidence (as it can apply to the audit in the private or public sectors, to the validation of information, for example, clients addresses, analysis procedures supported by statistics etc.).
- Risk Analysis (potential of sources of information).
- Verification of Presentation Standards of Financial Statements by Matching their Appearance On a Web Site (specify company name and industrial sector).

The results of your research will be distributed on the courses electronic billboard. Two contributions will be required during the trimester. You must send to the billboard the following information: project, course and professor identification: "Site Web Research as it Applies to the Audit Practices Covered in the Course: "External Audit: Elementary Concepts" - Presented to professor D. Claude Laroche." Identify your selected theme and (if necessary) give notice of your personal interpretations. For every site: name of site and electronic address, a brief description and comments, identification of the team members that participated in the search and the date of the web search.

Beware: certain sites are very elaborate; our interest is purely in the web pages relating to your subject. I also require a paper copy of your assignment.

GETTING STARTED...

Although all the students had previously received Internet training, the announcement of the project surprised some of them. To understand this reaction, one must remember that for the student it meant that he or she had to simultaneously confront three elements:

- Identify a relevant audit theme.
- Use Internet to identify the appropriate information.
- Transmit the research project results on the electronic billboard.

In spite of the original reaction, as the pieces of the puzzle emerged and were better understood (which required in class precisions on the framework of the assignment), the students got progressively caught-up in the game. Furthermore, the project start-up was facilitated by the transmission of the following additional information:

Here is some information on how to proceed when doing your research on Internet:

- For those that have very little knowledge of research engines, I suggest you use the City of Montreal Library Site: http://www.ville.montreal.qc.ca/biblio/outirech/cherche.htm or http://www.ville.montreal.qc.ca/biblio/visa.htm. Presented are some research engines and pre-selected sites. You will need these research engines to locate your sites.

Some sites are also designed as an index of sites dealing with accounting expertise. Here are a few:

- Audit net: http: //users.aol.com/auditnet/karlhome.htm (see resource list: a detailed index of sites in alphabetical order - a brief description appears. You will find a lot of answers to a great number of audit questions).
- International Accounting Network:http//www.summa.org.uk/accnet/welcome.html(an international cluster of sites)
- Tax and Accounting Sites Directory: http: //www.taxsites.com/ (sites ranked by themes)
- Accounting Firms and Associations' Sites: I suggest you visit the sites of these organizations. The Accounting Department's web site presents a partial listing: http: //www.hec.ca/~y 159/
- Business Organizations' Sites: several sites establish links with business organizations. These can be very useful for your research. For example check out the site for the Quebec Corporation of Chartered Accountants: http: //www.ocaq.qc.ca

The electronic bulletin board functioned like a mailing list, the professor did not sort any of the entries: all contributions were, in their original form, automatically redistributed to every electronic address registered on the list. During the trimester, the bulletin board was also used to communicate pedagogical course information, to send-off reminders to the students [6], or to dispatch other general information (for example, the accounting firms' recruiting advertisements).

EVALUATION (Marking System)

Since this was a first attempt at using the Internet in the process of teaching an auditing course and given the number of uncertainties surrounding the project, the assignment accounted for only 5 % of the student's final mark. Our pedagogical objective was twofold: first to encourage the student to employ an information technology still uncommonly used and second, familiarize them with the concepts of an audit. Consequently, the 2.5 points attributed for each contribution was essentially used to stimulate student participation by rewarding their efforts, and not to serve as a method of evaluation.

Each team had to make two contributions to the electronic bulletin board. In practice, this meant they had to formulate two questions relating to an audit and mark with reference and analyze at least one related web site for each one. At the point of evaluation, the professor (1) verified the existence of each site at the address indicated by the student, (2) evaluated the adequacy of the description with the site(s) submitted and (3) judged the usefulness of the site with respect to the research question or the theme selected. However, regardless of the quality of the comments or the analysis, all teams that completed the mandate received the maximum of 5 (five) points. There are several reasons to explain this decision.

First of all, it seemed to us that the simple fact that students were required to think trough a practical question that can come-up in the course of a audit engagement constituted a challenge worthy of recognition. Furthermore, we could not verify if all students succeeded in sending-off their findings on the electronic bulletin board and we did not want to penalize those that encountered difficulties because they did not master the technology. Finally, the in-depth analysis of the value of each contribution would have required on the part of the professor an excessive investment of time [7], which, given the context, could not be justified.

THE RESULTS

According to the printed versions handed-in to the professor, the students submitted a total of sixty-eight (68) contributions (Table 1). Of this number, four contributions were excluded because they were incorrectly addressed to the electronic bulletin board.

TABLE 1

Contributions to the Course's Electronic Bulletin Board	
Number of Contributions	68
Number of Contributions Excluded	4
Number of Active Contributions	64

Some students found more than one site per theme proposed, resulting in 110 sites submitted for the total 64 contributions. However, since sites are often displaced to new addresses or abandoned for lack of resources to maintain and up-date them, only the active sites as of December 1997 were retained in the present report. Therefore, by the end of the Autumn trimester, the bulletin board listed 106 sites, indexed and analyzed in accordance to external auditing themes.

TABLE 2

Number of Sites per Contributions

	Submitted		Retained	
	Contributions	Sites	Contributions	Sites
1 Site	33	33	34	34
2 Sites	17	34	19	38
3 Sites	13	39	10	30
4 Sites	1	4	1	4
TOTAL:	64	110	64	106

Some themes and sites were identified more than once. These duplications, in sum quite infrequent, can be explained by the fact that the students started their research at approximately the same time and subsequently, did not always have the time to consult the bulletin board in order to make sure that their site had not already been analyzed or spotted by others.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE UNFOLDING OF THE EXPERIMENT

The carrying-into effect of this first experiment in the use of web sites as they apply to an audit course led to various observations presented herewith.

PEDAGOGICAL APPROACH

On the pedagogical level, the learning method positioned between a concrete framework for problem resolution and the search for sources of information, turned-out to be quite stimulating. The fact that a large number of the contributions included several sites, is proof to us, that the students found interest in this project, that in sum, only accounted for a measly five points! According to the students' feed-back, this experience helped them to extend their comprehension of the implications surrounding an auditing engagement. Furthermore, by rendering all contributions accessible to everyone, we observed an emulation effect that probably contributed to the quality of the assignments submitted.

WEIGHT OF STUDENT SUPPORT

The set-up phase of this assignment was extremely time consuming and required a lot of energy on the part of the professor who was obliged to respond to a great number of student consultations. This initial investment was probably inevitable given the originality of the assignment and the innovative character of the teaching method as applied to an audit course.

THE USE OF TECHNOLOGY

Technical questions in reference to the use of the electronic bulletin board (registration procedure and expedition of the assignment) and the Internet multiplied. More so and regardless of the numerous explanations in class, some students never succeeded in sending-off their contribution. Hence, the experience illustrates than even though all students enrolled in a bachelor's program at the HEC receive a basic training on the workings of information technologies, some of them still do not master their use. It is probable, however, that with the increase presence of the Internet in our daily lives, in time, these types of obstacles will diminish substantially.

THE CHOICE OF AN AUDIT THEME

Subsequently, it also became clear that after assimilating the technological phase, one had to select sites that corresponded to a pertinent audit theme. Since the students were following their first audit course, they once more required a great need of coaching. More specifically, student questions touched upon the formulation of their theme and on the ways to research it by way of information available on the web. We consequently had to appease the uncertainties arising from the apprehension associated to learning a new field of expertise, while also keeping a look-out for students who wandered from the subject or had difficulties in translating a theme covered in class into a practical audit question.

CONTRIBUTION TO THE OBJECTIVES OF THE AUDIT COURSE

With respect to the teachings of audit practices, the experience was clearly a positive one. For sure, and as we will observe later on, the analysis undertaken by the students and the comments accompanying their contributions, displayed limitations which varied from one case to the other. This does not diminish the fact that the necessity to formulate a practical question as it relates to an audit, helped students to apply the concepts learnt in class.

To display the degree to which the questions formulated by the students are pertinent to concepts covered in the class "External Audit: Elementary Concepts ," we grouped them into inquiry categories. Figure 1 illustrates how these categories apply to the work of an auditor on an auditing engagement. The numbers appearing in the parentheses indicates the amount of contributions which applied to each category. We briefly present below the different theme categories.

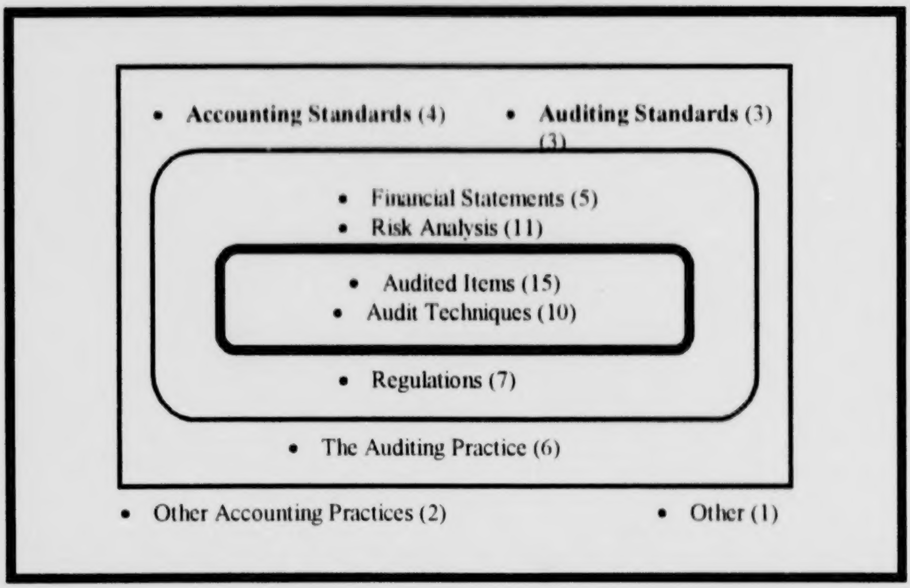
Standards and the Practice of Auditing

The students identified thirteen (13) themes which helped them to question and understand the exact interpretative force of accounting and auditing standards as well as the ways in which the auditing function is exercised in Canada and in other countries. This is a prerequisite to any audit: understanding the professional auditing requirements as they relate to the appropriate national context. In this category we also find general procedural themes as they apply to the practice of an audit: civil responsibility, ethics, fraud, continuity of operations.

Content of Financial Statements and Related Risk Analysis

When beginning an audit, two aspects are extremely important: understanding the content of the financial statements and its related risk analysis (in this category, sixteen (16) themes were retained by the students). In this respect, the instatement of the SEDAR site in the fall of 1997 did not go

FIGURE 1


• Accounting Standards (4)
• Auditing Standards (3)
(3)
• Financial Statements (5)
• Risk Analysis (11)
• Audited Items (15)
• Audit Techniques (10)
• Regulations (7)
• The Auditing Practice (6)
• Other Accounting Practices (2)
• Other (1)

unobserved; today it represent an unavoidable prerequisite to any audit ! In connection with understanding the financial statements, some sites supply the auditor with information on special stakes: statistics and descriptive sites dealing with special and risky situations.

Gathering Audit Evidence

Next, we can regroup twenty-five (25) themes which relate to gathering audit evidence, as applied to a specific item or of a more general nature. We could classify in this category, tools which facilitate the audit (411 or postal codes) or are useful to the audit of certain items (interest rates, exchange rate, stock exchange listings). Other sites facilitate the treatment of audit evidence (software, audit programs).

Regulations

Finally, a category of sites specializes in the impact of regulations on the audit. They are sites of a legal nature (income taxes, taxes, laws, environment standards, etc.) which are consulted by auditors looking for industry or country specific information (country, province, regional departments).

Others

At last, some sites describe the various accounting fields of practice and one site brings us back to a state of relaxation (the joke site).

THE LIMITS OF THE EXPERIENCE

The use of the sites discussed above and published on the electronic bulletin board, raises questions on their reliability as they apply to the actual audit engagement. For instance, we could ask ourselves to what extent the information broadcast on the Internet is precise enough and sufficiently reliable for the auditor to stake, his/her work on? For example, what assurance do we have that the information presented on accounting in China is valid and up-to-date? We cannot take for granted all the information we find on the Web! In all cases, one must remain vigilant. In no uncertain terms, we must constantly remind the students of this point in case!

However, it appears possible to cross-check information gathered on a site in order to increase its reliability. For instance, we can consult two or three sites to validate the exchange rate. Furthermore, sites for which the author is recognized for his or her authority should not raise any doubt in terms of their reliability; for example, government sites should in principle supply reliable information that one can verify with the competent authorities.

In our opinion, resources available on the web should be used principally to gather basic research information such as to generate, ideas on the context of a situation, details on a given sector or finally data to be validated at a later date.

The major theme categories discussed above originate from the research of students following their first audit class. It does not claim to cover all subjects of relevance to the auditor's practice. Furthermore, it is possible to assume that we would obtain different categories if the assignment was undertaken by experienced practitioners or by students completing their final academic year. However, the exercise to which the students submitted themselves does certainly attest to the fact that web sites do constitute an important source of information, that is rapidly accessible, and in most cases, inexpensive.

FUTURE APPLICATIONS

I would like to add that the professor himself found the use of web sites in his audit course very interesting. It is always stimulating to see the enthusiasm of students enthralled with a project and eager to assimilate the knowledge transmitted in class. In addition, the students' findings allowed the professor and a number of his colleagues to take notice and discover sites, useful and rich in information, which were pertinent to their teaching interests and accounting research.

With respect to the use of the information in class, we admit that we did not exploit the full potential of the students' contributions because of time constraints (the program is already very demanding) and because the start-up of the project was essentially left for the second part of the semester, that is, primarily in November and the beginning of December of 1997.

We believe, however, that the experiment described in this document can be re-assigned, with certain aspects being systematically integrated:

- The reliability of a site should be tested by cross-checking methods and an analysis of the information observed should appear (for example the exchange rate);
- The corroboration of information presented by the client (for example, investment value);
- The understanding and risk analysis of a given industrial sector by use of firms' specific information (for example, the retail industry);
- A critical analysis of sites where auditing programs and other audit tools appear (for example, determining sample size).

The exponential growth of the penetration of the Internet forces us to think of its use as much as it applies to the audit engagement, as it contributes to pedagogy. What from the start began as a simple assignment, turned-out to be, not only a means of identifying sources of complexity in the use of technology, but a pertinent audit teaching tool. The students' projects clearly display that it is possible to foresee promising new avenues in the use of the Internet in management and auditing courses.

ENDNOTES

1. SCHWARTAU Winn, *La Presse*, (January 10, 1998), page B1.

2. To convince oneself, one must simply take a look at the latest strategic plan proposed by the Quebec Corporation of Chartered Accountants for the period 1997-2001. It highlights in detail the challenges facing the profession in the next decade and the resulting changes that will modify its procedures.

3. This reality finds an echo in the fact that the length of the studies required to obtain the title of Chartered Accountant was prolonged to four years of University (120 credits). The internship in a firm is still two years.

4. In the regular course requirements, for a student following the concentration of a 'chartered accountant', this first external auditing class is scheduled in the fifth semester of his or her training (that is the third year into a bachelor's degree.)

5. The electronic bulletin board consisted of a mailing list managed by the HEC server.

6. For example, we reminded the students to make sure their contributions did not duplicate a colleagues entry, that their theme had not already been chosen, etc.

7. To evaluate the pertinence of the students' comments and descriptions for each site, one would have to redo every research project. This, given the circumstances, would have been an unmanageable task. In fact some sites are very complex and involve many links. This translates into the need to navigate extensively before you understand them clearly, or before you are in a position to describe them or, before you can appreciate their pertinence to the audit theme and their ramifications.

PROJECT THRO: TEACHING HUMAN RIGHTS ON-LINE

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Abstract

Project THRO employs the latest technology for Teaching Human Rights On-line with text exchange and video conferencing. THRO provides a unique website of interactive cases as an initiative of DIANA, the electronic research data base at the University of Cincinnati and the Morgan Institute for Human Rights. As a SOLO exercise, students work problems independently and receive immediate feedback designed to foster critical thinking. INTERCOM/VIDEOCOM components will enable instructors to use the cases for class discussion and simulation, as well as for Internet text exchange and video conferencing between their own students and with classes at other institutions in the U.S. and abroad.

INTRODUCTION

In a youth culture dominated by television and computer games, many students welcome teaching initiatives with new technology. Project THRO employs interactive world wide web exercises to improve i) knowledge of human rights, ii) critical thinking, and iii) transnational communication.

THRO applies information age technology to classical forms of active learning--the Socratic method, case based teaching, and simulation. Aristotle concluded that all virtues presuppose prudence, the wise application of reason to the achievement of moral ends. He called "moral virtues those habits of mind and action which lead to the development of our uniquely human potentials." [Martin, 1996] Sixteenth century moral philosophers championed the dialectical method, just as contemporary "critical thinking" humanities faculty teach practical moral reasoning and civic virtue. Active reasoning frees the mind, so the liberal arts teach students to cultivate a balance among competing values.

Teaching Human Rights On-line began at the University of Cincinnati in 1996 with a successful pilot test of an interactive world court case on genocide. After a double blind peer review, a 1997 North American Case Research Association meeting panel critiqued a second problem on counter-terrorism in India. A similar peer review was made for the 1998 Case writers' Workshop of the World Affairs Case Research Association. Teaching notes are available on-line for both prototype cases.

Pending grant proposals seek funds to expand the project significantly from 1998-2000. The grants would partially fund faculty authors writing new case problems, technical consultants to "webify" the interactive curriculum materials, computer hardware and software technology facilitating text exchange and transnational video conferences, international dissemination to course instructors, and external evaluation of educational impact. The project will arrange peer review for well designed cases submitted by faculty who wish to contribute interactive curriculum materials to the electronic data base.

PROJECT GOALS AND CASE DESIGN

THRO enables instructors to use the case method, simulation, and Socratic dialogue both in the classroom and in cyberspace communication between students of different cultures. Asynchronous exchange of text, audio, and video can link a global audience in unprecedented interaction exploring humanities principles. Dewey's 1916 prescription applies to both the school and the Internet:

> All that the *Internet* [school] can or need do for pupils, so far as their minds are concerned . . . is to develop their ability to think. . . . The alternative to furnishing ready-made subject matter and listening to the accuracy with which it is reproduced is not quiescence, but participating, sharing in an activity. [1916]

Disputes over "universal" human rights challenge uncritical credulity and force students to explain reasoned conclusions. Whitehead admonished: "beware of 'inert ideas'--that is to say, ideas that are merely received into the mind without being utilized, or tested, or thrown into fresh combinations." [1929] Case problems educate students in normative reasoning by posing moral dilemmas.

> In a *narrative case*, a whole story is told in all its complexity and multiplicity of actors and interests. Students must tease through complex, contradictory and ambiguous information to discern the major principles at play. In a *decision-forcing case* a problem facing a decision maker is defined, but the story is stopped at the point of decision. Here students must work through different decision scenarios, assessing options, debating diverse solutions, and making recommendations. [Golich, 1993]

THRO's decision-forcing problems require students to evaluate ambiguous choices confronting a judge, administrative official, or business executive struggling to balance ethical claims against legal, political, and economic values. Respect for human rights norms can have consequences for criminal procedure, national security, and corporate profits that students must evaluate with philosophical rigor. Closely decided legal precedents compel students to weigh opposing arguments in majority and dissenting opinions. Students must identify unresolved issues, recognize relevant facts and legal authority, and reason by analogy.

Romm and Mahler offer a typology of the method that indicates teachers can use THRO cases for either 1) individual or group exercises, 2) analysis/discussion or role playing/simulation, 3) structured or free response choices. Simulation is especially educational as "valuing can be achieved when students actually play a character. By experiencing a character as oneself they go beyond a mere accepting of the character's point of view that is typical of 'responding', into an active involvement, internalization and commitment to it ." [Romm, 1986]

Encouraging students to play an unfamiliar role promotes understanding of alternative truths. As advocates for a position other than their own, students may become less certain of their knowledge, more willing to entertain new ideas, to learn by questioning, and to consider a range of possibilities. Whether or not they ultimately modify deeply held personal beliefs, the exercise can provide fresh information and the ability to rebut an adversary.

Following impersonal interaction with a computer program, students need to engage live minds. At commuter colleges and large universities, undergraduates find it difficult to meet outside of class with course instructors and classmates. Some students with a full academic load are employed twenty to forty hours per week. An increasing number transfer into a college for only the last two years of a B.A. program. The best residential colleges foster learning communities providing rich interpersonal relationships that are all too rare in most institutions. After personal introductions in the campus classroom, collaborative learning can now be achieved in cyberspace. [Schwartz in Berge, 1995] Instead of further depersonalizing campus relationships, e-mail opens a channel for more frequent written communication between students and with their course instructors. With unobtrusive faculty moderation, the e-mail discussion groups organized by THRO will also allow U.S. students to engage in authentic dialog with students in countries they may never visit in person. [Schwartz in Boschmann, 1995]

THRO adds a curriculum component to DIANA, an electronic research database at the University of Cincinnati. Teaching problems will serve undergraduate courses in philosophy, history, political science, psychology, international relations, and women's studies; professional classes in law, education and business; as well as high school social studies. Each interactive exercise on-line will have its own instructional guide explaining three possible applications

i) as an interactive multimedia exercise for individuals (SOLO),
ii) for asynchronous two way communication and group discussion on-line (TEXTCOM),
iii) synchronous debates and simulation both in class and with TeleVideo conferencing, ultimately using Internet2 technology (VIDEOCON).

Two prototype problems currently on-line will be further developed as models for additional cases planned for 1998-2000.

TWO 1998 PROTOTYPE CASES FOR TEACHING HUMAN RIGHTS ON-LINE

THE INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE CONSIDERS GENOCIDE

SOLO

This interactive website http://oz.uc.edu/thro/ encourages participants to play the role of a judge at the International Court of Justice (ICJ). The case brought by Bosnia in 1993 charges genocide and seeks damages from Serbia and Montenegro, the former Yugoslavia. Participants can explore the facts, research the law, and consider opposing arguments that support one side or the other. Background briefing material (4,000 words) introduces relevant treaty law such as the Genocide Convention, summarizes applicable ICJ precedent, and reviews evidence of ethnic cleansing. Initially students are challenged to determine the best arguments, legal authority, and relevant facts supporting each side in a forced choice format. They are immediately scored based on how well their selections demonstrate an understanding of the issues and competing arguments. By identifying all the best facts and arguments that support each side, a participant can earn a perfect score of 100.

Along with their score students receive answers to the forced choice problem. Participants are then asked to decide two issues and by providing a written rationale that justifies their opinions for Bosnia and/or Yugoslavia. After submitting their decisions, students receive an explanation of the court's judgment which favored Bosnia on one claim and Yugoslavia on the other. As a concluding exercise, students reevaluate their initial opinion in light of the court's judgment by writing an analysis that may be printed or e-mailed as a class assignment or for personal use. [Desberg, 1996] A reference screen provides links to the electronic text of the 1996 ICJ opinion, U.N. documents, international treaties, and the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia to assist students undertaking further research for an individual writing assignment or group project. The case was selected after blind review for presentation to the 1998 World Affairs Case Research Association (WACRA).

An alternative SOLO version of the Bosnia problem grades participants on how well they select arguments in the role of an attorney (rather than as a judge), but does not require any written answers on-line. http://oz.uc.edu/thro/ After studying the background facts, law, and possible arguments, participants then compete as "counsel" on behalf of one side or the other. It is possible to earn a perfect score of 100 by choosing all the best facts and arguments which support the "client" represented, even if that state ultimately lost the case. An individual score is reported along with information about how the ICJ ruled and why. The author's paper "Internet Paths to Human Intelligence" delivered at the 1997 International Studies Association meeting evaluates undergraduate class implementation of that initial ICJ problem at the University of Cincinnati and is available on-line at http://www.uc.edu/~tolley/

An Instructor's Manual/Teaching Note can be obtained on-line by submitting a request form. The problem and TN received double blind peer review before presentation at the 1998 WACRA Case writers' Workshop. The TN provides discussion questions for a single class session and guidelines for additional TEXTCOM and VIDEOCON interaction.

TEXTCOM

Building on their individual work, students exchange case analysis with classmates and the instructor on-line. Asynchronous two way e-mail, list-serve distribution to a select group, and web bulletin board posting for general comment will set the foundation for in-class discussion, debate, and/or role playing. Students who role play counsel will collaborate on-line in preparing and circulating memoranda prior to a simulated ICJ hearing. During a final class meeting, students role play counsel for each state party in presenting oral argument to a panel of student judges who may question counsel before discussing their judgment. Following text exchange among students on one campus, the project will arrange a structured exercise involving asynchronous communication between organized groups in classes at different institutions in the U.S. and abroad. Since the 1980s the University of Maryland has operated a text conference on the Internet. ICONS, International Communications Negotiation Simulation, now involves 1,500 students a year at more than 55 colleges and universities. Students from eighteen countries compete in on-line international conferences simulating diplomatic negotiations to resolve foreign policy differences. http://www.bsos.umd.edu/icons/icons.html [Starkey, 1996]

VIDEOCON

In a winter 1998 pilot video conferences, North Dakota State University and U.C. students argued as "counsel" in simulated ICJ hearings. In a second video conference simulation planned for Spring 1998, two university student teams located in adjacent counties will compete as representatives of Bosnia and Yugoslavia in advocacy judged by a panel located at a third distance learning center. Following advance preparation using TEXTCOM, student counsel deliver a thirty minute oral argument in three-way live simulcasts. When judges interrupt with questions, all participants view the interaction on screens in the three linked distance learning centers. Following an interval after broadcast of each oral argument, the video conference will reconvene for announcement of the court's judgment and debriefing. Participants from Central Europe are being sought for a transnational teleconference simulation in 1999. Prior to computer conferencing with European partners the U.S. students will meet with international students, faculty, and staff from the region on their own campus to discuss the human rights issue.

PRIME MINISTER RAO'S DILEMMA: TERRORISM AND HUMAN RIGHTS IN INDIA

The initial text version presented hypothetical cabinet ministers advocating rival approaches to secessionist movements in the Punjab and Kashmir. The author substantially revised the problem following presentations at the Pace University Faculty Conference on Using Cases and a double blind peer review for the 1997 North American Case Research Association. The revised decision-forcing case presents an actual crisis confronted by India's Prime Minister Rao in 1995 following a terrorist assassination of the Punjab Chief Minister. Political rivals in upcoming national elections might exploit a weak response, but the government's past anti-terrorist measures provoked domestic and international complaints of massive human rights violations. Following the recommendations of a NACRA panel, further revisions were made to both the problem and Teaching Note, and the author transformed the case into an interactive format for Project THRO.

The on-line case introduction provides information about how the government has countered terrorist bombings and assassinations with repression, torture, and summary killings. Additional background material explains how extraordinary powers exercised under Indian emergency legislation violate international human rights treaty commitments. Prime Minister Rao must decide whether or not a) to comply with international law b) to prosecute security personnel who committed atrocities and c) to admit more international human rights observers. The on-line forced choice format scores participants on their ability to distinguish factors which favor human rights reform from those supporting counter-terrorist measures. Along with their score students receive answers to the forced choice problem. Participants are then asked to resolve three dilemmas by providing a written rationale that justifies their choices. Alternative model answers to each question on-line may then be reviewed to compare the differing responses by those who disagree over whether compliance human rights principles would protect or endanger national security. Students be print or e-mail their written answers as a class assignment or for personal use.

An appended reference section with links to appropriate websites identifies varied sources that students may consult about human rights law, international reports charging India with violations, and the government's published response to those charges. An Instructor's Manual/Teaching Note can be obtained on line by submitting a request form.

The Project has made initial contact with several universities in the U.S. and one in Bangalore, India to create the type of on-line text exchange and video conferencing planned for the ICJ case. Prior to computer conferencing with South Asian partners the U.S. students will meet with international students, faculty, and staff from India on their own campus to discuss the human rights issue. The current Teaching Note offers guidance for both class discussion and a role-playing exercise by advisers debating policy choices for Prime Minister Rao to make.

COMPARATIVE EVALUATION

The Computer Mediated Communications (CMC) planned for THRO employs instructional technology that has been successfully adapted for use by both individuals and groups. [Berge]

Individual Applications: (THRO/SOLO)

- On-line links to web sites with case problems [CASENET, Harvard], text of primary source materials [Finke, 1994], and multi-media electronic references such as Supreme Court oral argument [Goldman] that may be downloaded free or obtained for an access fee.
- Text based tutorials, computer assisted instruction programmed to score and correct student errors on a series of forced choice response items. [CALI, 1997]
- Multi-media tutorials, prize winning interactive audio-video exercises for training lawyers in cross examination and trial objections [CLE Group, Harvard], business managers [Rye, 1994] and students of international conflict [Bloomfield, 1997].

Text based Computer Conferencing: (THRO/INTERCOM)

- Asynchronous connections with E-mail, electronic bulletin boards, ListServ [Klein, 1996] for ICONS international negotiation simulation [Starkey, 1996], literature classes in France and the U.S. [Schwarz in Boschmann, 1995], business exercises such as the Bry-Aire transnational problem [Moore, 1997] and local courseware [Texas Christian], acoustics [Stuart, 1997], sociology cases [Hachen], and computer education [Nalley].
- Synchronous transnational chat for world-wide, multi-institutional ICONS role-playing [Starkey, 1996], Electronic Model U.N. [Hillebrand], Interactive Communications Simulations, [Turgeon, 1997], European learning communities [EONT, Kilbride] and New Zealand on-line networks [Wellington Polytechnic

Audio-Visual Conferencing: (THRO/VIDEOCON)

- Teleconference distance education with electronic student response systems by corporations such as AT&T [Garvin-Kester, 1995]
- Video conference distance learning through universities such as BESTNET, Binational English and Spanish Telecommunications Network [Metes, 1995].

EDUCATIONAL ASSESSMENT

Numerous studies demonstrating how the case method enhances learning suggests that computerized problem solving exercises should also promote critical thinking. Pew Case Studies in International Affairs have brought to the undergraduate classroom teaching methods that worked well in law schools and colleges of business. [Mingst, 1994; Parkinson, 1997] "Thinking like a lawyer" entails more than calculating the dollars in a contingency fee award [Shreve, 1977]. Legal reasoning fosters a rational-analytical approach to problem solving.

The first step involves the definition of a problem or a decision. The second step requires the diagnosis of the possible reasons for the problem. The third step includes a search for alternative solutions to the problem. Finally, the fourth step involves a comparison of the various alternatives and a choice of the most appropriate one. [Romm, 1986]

Research in several disciplines has found improvement in student learning from computer mediated communication. Bonham, a political scientist, identified three levels of computer use in a survey of students who experienced a range of frustration and success on the web. [1996] A peer reviewed electronic journal of the Asynchronous Learning Network assessed the successes and failures of "CyberProf." [Ranieri, 1997] A Netherlands pretest-posttest control group design evaluated learning outcomes of computer-based role-playing and found significant dividends for interpersonal skills training. [Holsbrick-Engels, 1997] Other research in political science [Manrique, 1992, 1995], critical thinking [Whitney, 1995], computer education [Bergeron, 1988] and other fields [Morris, 1994] have also shown benefits.

FORMATIVE EVALUATION

THRO role-playing exercises seek to realize Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives [1956], the rational-analytical model of John Dewey [1933], and the learning theories of William Perry [1970]. Success will require formative evaluation during pilot tests of prototype problems subject to ongoing revision and improvement. [Hoelscher, 1995] Following the first in-class simulations of the two prototype cases, fifty students were asked to complete an evaluation questionnaire that produced the following anonymous ratings on an A to F scale:

Student Evaluation of Computer Role-Playing and Case Simulation, 1977-1998

	A	B	C	D	F
	%	%	%	%	%
1. enhancing *knowledge and comprehension* of the ICJ, Bosnian situation, treaty law, etc.	65	33	2		
2. developing critical thinking skills of questioning, *analysis and application*	60	31	8		
3. promoting effective collaboration with other students in problem solving	45	36	18		
4. fostering improved electronic, written and/or oral communication skills	55	40	4		
5. stimulating interest in and effort to understand international law and organization	61	32	7		
6. overall value of the project as presented by the instructor for your major	57	34	4	4	

Other evaluation questions asked students to grade four teaching problems--two hardcopy Pew case studies, and the two web interactive exercises--as well as the assigned course text, lecture/discussion, in-class negotiation/simulation and the electronic communication tools. The text received the lowest marks, and the Pew hardcopy problem on the Falklands/Malvinas was most highly rated. Students recommended future use of both formats, finding advantages and disadvantages in each approach. The text based problems were more expensive and lacked the Internet research links, but access and use was easier. "I have a hard time reading of a computer screen. The electronic problems sometimes were too massive and was herd to keep track where info was." The new technology generally received high praise as reflected in the following comments:

- the Internet: ability to compete with other students w/o having to drive anywhere;
- email was probably the most useful tool. When events occurred outside of our small window of meeting time, it was easy to be kept abreast. Cooperation w others was a somewhat tenuous situation for me
- The most valuable piece to this class was the tremendous amount of class participation. I now have twenty new friends.
- I enjoyed being able to turn stuff in from home.

- You always learn more when you actually get involved hands on and not just concentrating on memorizing.
- This is as close to real life we can get. It stimulates critical thinking and extends interest for extra research in every subject.
- Had all the facts out in the open and then made you apply what was learned.
- The best thing was the scoring process, it's fun to see in a role playing situation if in fact one's choices were correct. The worst thing was probably the poor quality of computers and printers available on campus
- The role playing is the part of this class I always learn the most from. This was great. Getting involved and knowing specifics is a more interesting way of learning.
- I liked . . . the Bosnia example because it is always in the news and is hard to understand. This exercise cleared up many of my questions not answered by the mainstream media.
- Does stimulate learning and creates an atmosphere of camaraderie among classmates who must work together! It was time well spent for case studies are the best approach. Survey courses don't teach enough hands on material.
- Case problems allow the class to visualize specific proceedings of the ICJ and the UN. That's better than a lecture in that we see how things work instead of just hearing how they work.

Winter 1997 Assessment of ICJ Genocide Computer Role-Playing and Case Simulation

A question on the final exam tested student's ability to apply lessons from the ICJ genocide role-playing to a quasi-hypothetical situation in Africa.

Hypothetical Exam Problem: After Hutu genocide against Tutsis in Rwanda, the Tutsis won control of Rwanda's government. Hutu refugees fled to neighboring Zaire where U.N. workers provided humanitarian relief. Native Tutsis in Zaire have now killed many refugees as part of a military campaign to secede and become independent. The government army has counterattacked.

Exam Questions	% of 30 Students With Correct Answers
1. What could the U.N. do to punish individual Tutsis in Zaire for acts of genocide?	50%
2. If requested by Zaire, could the ICJ order the UN workers to leave the country?	43%
3. Could the ICJ hold Rwanda's Tutsi government responsible for genocide against Hutus in Zaire?	63%
4. If the ICJ hears the case, what additional judges would be appointed?	80%
5. Is there any immediate response to the fighting the court could make?	30%

Correct Answers	8 Co-counsel No.	%	22 Other Students No.	%	30 Students Total No.	%
1	1	13%	4	18%	5	16%
2	0	0%	7	32%	7	24%
3	2	25%	4	18%	6	20%
4	5	62%	6	27%	11	36%
5	0	0%	1	5%	1	3%
TOTAL	8	100%	22	100%	30	100%

Winter 1998 Assessment of Rao's Dilemma Computer Role-Playing and Case Simulation

A question on the final exam tested student's ability to apply lessons from the problem on India's compliance with international human rights to their own country.

Exam Problem: Death row inmates and U.S. citizens who oppose capital punishment may be supported by international law and organizations. Explain your answers to each of the following:

Exam Questions	% of 25 Students With Correct Answers
23. What international nongovernmental organization might oppose the execution of Wilford Berry in Ohio and what methods would they use?	92%
24. Could Berry appeal from the U.S. Supreme Court to the International Court of Justice? Explain.	64%
25. In reviewing appeals from juveniles on death row, would the U.S. Supreme Court be bound to follow an opinion by the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights against executing minors?	80%
26. What UN rapporteur or Secretariat officer might protest a U.S. execution and how could they do so?	64%
27. What international body could hear an NAACP claim that the U.S. death penalty is racially biased?	32%

	11 Rao Advisers	14 Other Students	Total
# Correct Answers	40 73%	43 61%	83 66%
# Incorrect Answers	15 27%	2739%	4234%

The above exam results led to the following three conclusions:

1. An in class, group simulation following individual Internet role playing can extend student's learning beyond comprehension achieved with readings and lecture: The individuals who simulated the roles in class answered more questions correctly than students who simply observed their debate after completing Internet role-play.
2. A problem solving approach demands higher level cognitive skills. Students gave more correct responses to ICJ questions #3 and #4 that involved simpler comprehension of procedures than to questions #1, #2, and #5 which required higher analytic skills. Only a third of the students could apply learning from the Rao problem to the NAACP question, #5.
3. A liberal faith in human intelligence and the instructor's best efforts can not educate all of the students all of the time. A sense of humility and humor must sustain the ego when students state the ICJ can consider an NAACP petition, conduct criminal prosecutions of individuals or review appeals, order an arms embargo, economic sanctions or both.

Dissemination for further pilot tests

Five University of Cincinnati Project THRO Associates come from the colleges of Arts and Sciences, Women's Studies, Law, Education, and Business. THRO now seeks Editors, Associates and contributors from institutions around the world to publish a peer reviewed, electronic journal of interactive cases and research articles evaluating the effectiveness of Teaching Human Rights On-Line (ISSN 0-9626291-3-8). Grants will support free Internet dissemination of THRO materials with no subscription fee during a two year development phase initiated in 1998, the 50th Anniversary of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

During the pilot phase, the Project will make the case materials available on-line at no cost to individuals for SOLO exercises. Instructors may use the problems either as a class assignment or for structured exchange with classes at other institutions. The URL for THRO and information about the two prototype cases has been provided to sixteen Internet search engines and subject directories including Librarians' Index to the Internet and LawFind. On-line registration with Project THRO will be required to obtain a copy of the case teaching guide and a list of instructors using the problems who seek links beyond their own campus. All registrants will also be expected to provide feedback required for assisting in improvements to the prototype cases.

The Project will record hits on the site to determine the amount of use, repeated connection from the same location, and the users country of origin. There were 3,663 requests in the 35 days from February 2 to March 8, 1998. There was access from 25 countries outside the U.S. and Canada.

The American Association of Higher Education is completing a four year "Flashlight" project "developing a constellation of survey items, interview questions, cost analysis methods, and other resources that educational institutions can use to study and steer their own uses of technology." [AAHE] Project THRO will seek funding to utilize the Current Student Inventory and its Evaluation Handbook. Educators in Australia completed a 200 page study "From Chalkface to Interface" that provides additional evaluation guidelines. [Victoria]

TARGET FOR THE MILLENNIUM

By the year 2000 Project THRO should have up to twelve additional interactive cases on line enhanced by emerging technology. With the wider bandwidth of Internet2, quality transmission for audio and video should eliminate the need for expensive telephone connections. A SOLO exercise may feature real audio and videoclips of the actual officials and parties involved. Criminal proceedings of the War Crimes Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia have been recorded live and can be linked to screens of text providing case background information. English speaking teachers and students anywhere in cyberspace may use THRO exercises both as individuals and in organized interaction between student groups on different campuses. E-mail discussion groups with the lowest level of technical requirements will enable THRO to reach the widest audience for TEXTCOM interactions. The international VIDEOCON will begin with universities equipped with distance learning centers for teleconferences.

Transnational interaction using THRO exercises should promote various dimensions of global competence. [Lambert, 1994]

- Global Knowledge: Facts and understanding of global issues and affairs
- Empathy and appreciation: Seeing issues positively, from another perspective
- Intercultural Skills: Language; task-related skills; interpersonal skills
- Ability to Learn: Identify, analyze, use and remember information for other cultural sources
- Adaptability: Adapting to life and interaction cross-culturally
- Intercultural Experience: Time spent in intercultural situations.

What if anything will the computer assisted THRO problems add to the traditional case method? Are the extensive commitments in both time and money cost effective? The fringe benefits of introductory on-line experience are unquantifiable--links to related primary source material and email interaction with instructors and peers in cyberspace. Distance learning classrooms and "See me See You" software for video transmission will enable instructors to conduct simulations involving students in remote locations.

The Internet like the printing press or TV satellites can be used for good or ill. Making the best use of technology may combat the worst abuses, enhancing intellectual development rather than dumbing down. Given sufficient off-line interaction with peers and the instructor, individual time spent on-line with THRO problems can improve student's knowledge and critical thinking skills. The limited choice format of computer assisted role playing can develop analytical and application skills, but an unstructured simulation more effectively cultivates the ability to synthesize and do normative reasoning. Dewey strongly encouraged the integration of teaching skills and ideas. "The parceling out of instruction among various ends such as acquisition of skill (in readings, spelling, writing, drawing, reciting); acquiring information (in history and geography), *and* training of thinking is a measure of the ineffective way in which we accomplish all three" [Dewey, 1933]

"Teaching is a social art, necessarily involving a relationship between people." [Cragg, 1994] Success requires programming and electronic communication that challenge students to think and exchange information rather than to have computers solve the problem. Computer programs are no more impersonal than a printed text, and both can be enlisted in collaborative learning communities that depend on interacting with fellow students. Communication on-line has created a new faculty links with students that have stimulated unprecedented conversations about their intellectual and personal development. Cyberspace has ample room for new learning communities that are difficult to create at a large, urban commuter campus. If they were alive today, is it that hard to imagine Socrates engaging John Dewey in a dialogue on the Internet? Interactive web exercises are no panacea, but the potential for intelligent use appears well worth the cost.

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BUILDING (CLASS-CENTERED) INTERNET WEB SITES TO EFFECTIVELY SERVE STUDENT INFORMATION NEEDS

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Abstract

At the present rate of growth, computers and the Internet will dominate the delivery of education materials at the college level in a few short years. These trends mandate that educational institutions fully utilize these powerful tools and teach students to use them as well. In a large research study done recently at the University of North Alabama, students were asked what information items should be made available on class-specific Internet Web sites. The findings will help the faculty better serve student interests by providing needed information to classes across the University community. Further, students were asked about their patterns of computer use, and experience in using the Internet. Many useful and constructive suggestions were made by respondents. The findings can assist faculty in meeting curriculum needs and help the administration fulfill computer support expectations.

INTRODUCTION

From its beginning in 1982, the WACRA organization has endorsed, encouraged, and supported the use of cases and various interactive teaching methods in college and university teaching. Although the membership base has dramatically expanded beyond teaching, research and application (to include many professionals in fields such as business, communication, education, medicine, law, history, engineering, psychology, public policy, and social work) in more than 50 countries, the organization still has "interactivity" as a principal focus.

Interactivity is becoming much more commonplace in all learning environments in the 1990's. This appears to be partially related to the explosive growth of (computer based) informational technologies (IT). Dr. Kenneth C. Green, a visiting scholar at the Claremont Graduate School, believes that computers have made the transition from unique to omnipresent and have changed our basic economy, including our homes, schools, colleges and the workplace [Green, 1997]. Further, computers are required to access the Internet. At the end of 1997, the Internet (Web) had reached mass market proportions. More than 18 percent of all households in the United States were online, and this is projected to grow to 38 percent of all households in four years [International Data Corporation, 1998].

The widespread use of computers in education and in the classroom has caused many of us to see the potential of "distance learning." In the past this concept dealt with prepackaged text, audio, and video courses taken by students who were not part of the regular classroom or were physically separated from teachers or faculty members. Today, however, new developments in the information technologies (IT) field are making it possible to use these new computer-based tools and techniques to build more interactivity into the regular classroom while, at the same time, encouraging the development of even more powerful off-campus (or Web-based) course delivery systems.

Big changes are occurring in off-campus or distance learning programs, according to Judith Boettcher and Rita-Marie Conrad of Florida State University [Boettcher, 1998]. The Web is becoming the center for interaction between faculty member and student and for the delivery of course content to students. Some interactive capabilities being used include e-mail, digital libraries, and chat rooms to facilitate student-to-student and instructor-to-student communication and interaction. Of course, many traditional course materials, such as books and assigned projects, are still used in the distance learning environment. Again, many of these Web based, or IT, elements being used in distance learning have application possibilities in the regular classroom.

An annual survey has been conducted on the use of computers in the classroom. Over the past eight years data has been gathered each year among 605 two and four-year colleges and universities. Kenneth C. Green, director of the Campus Computing Project, has identified the most common components of IT in higher education as follows: (1)e-mail, (2)Internet resources, (3)WWW pages, (4)computer simulations, (5)electronic presentations, (6)multimedia, and (7)CD-Rom based multimedia. His October 1997 study reports that electronic mail, Internet resources, the Web, and multimedia are increasingly becoming components of the instructional experience. The number of classes using e-mail has grown from 8.0 percent in 1994 to 32.8 percent in 1997. Classes drawing on resources from the Internet have increased from 4.0 percent in 1994 to 24.8 percent in 1997 [Green, 1997]. Professors and administrators should take note of these trends. At the present rate of growth, IT components will dominate the delivery of education materials in a few short years.

The big question that educators should address, perhaps, does not involve whether or not computerized delivery media should be used, but how it should be used and, particularly, what class-specific content should be made available to students. The literature provides little or no guidance in this matter. It is for this reason that a large study was undertaken in the Fall of 1997 among students at the University of North Alabama (UNA) in Florence, Alabama.

DETERMINING CLASS-FOCUSED STUDENT INFORMATION NEEDS

Beyond textbooks, there are an unlimited number of items of information that can be beneficial in traditional courses. Publishers and authors have realized this and are rapidly making supplemental materials available to professors and students on dedicated Web sites. The availability of supplemental Web materials also varies by discipline. No information on how widespread this may be is available at this time. In marketing, a discipline area in business schools, it appears that more than half of the entry level textbooks have associated web sites from which additional materials are available. One top selling marketing principles textbook by Boone and Kurtz has been built entirely around the Internet and Web references [Boone, 1998]. Some publishers, particularly in the computer discipline (CIS), have web sites and provide CD's with virtually all of their textbooks. It is not known how successful this (content) approach is at the present time.

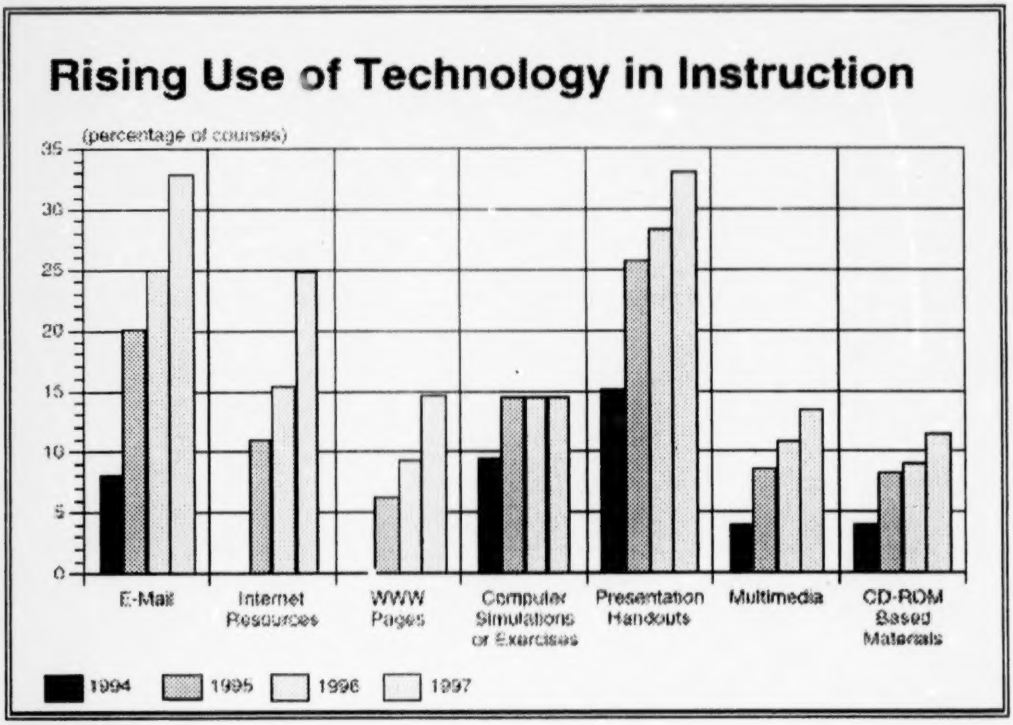
Other progressive publishers are now providing teaching materials, test banks, and special topics, like "Careers in Marketing," on CD-ROM disks. A few publishers are thought to even provide the full text (instead of a textbook) on CD-ROM's. It is not known how well this concept will be accepted among professors or used by students. Certainly, publishers have data on this, but the information has not yet been made public. Very few classes, or students, for that matter, appear to be using this type of material at the beginning of 1998.

As shown in Table I, below, the Campus Computing Project [Green, 1997] notes that only 11-12 percent of the classes now use CD-ROM based materials and the growth rate is lower than for all other IT methods except "simulations or exercises."

RESEARCH PROJECT DESIGN

Although the amount of specific classroom content that can be delivered to students will probably vary by discipline, the ideas to be discussed in the present paper are broad enough to be considered for use in most classrooms. Students in all four colleges at UNA were included in the present research project. The four colleges at UNA are Arts and Sciences, Business, Education, and Nursing.

TABLE 1



Rising Use of Technology in Instruction

The research study had three parts. The first involved finding out how often, where, and for what purposes students use computers and the Internet. The second part asked which classroom materials (and the importance of each) would be most helpful if made available on the Internet. The third part attempted to determine the problems that students have in learning about and using computers and the Internet. Several questions at the end of the questionnaire asked for demographic information. The main focus of the paper deals with (part two) the identification of class-specific materials that would be helpful to students in various classes.

The Office of Research at UNA reported that 5,575 students were enrolled at the University during the Fall of 1997. Classes were selected systematically among the four colleges to provide a random sample of the student body. Some oversampling was intentionally done in the College of Business to achieve an independent population size that could be used in a separate analysis to be done later.

Questionnaires were administered to 407 graduate and undergraduate students in 21 classes. Fourteen of these questionnaires, however, had to be discarded because they were not fully or correctly completed. The total number of observations used in the statistical computations was 393. Only 359 observations were required to achieve a confidence interval of 95 percent with a ± 5 degrees of precision. The number of observations analyzed, therefore, exceeded the required number by 34 [Arkin, 1984]. These levels (95 percent confidence and 5 ± degrees of precision) are considered the norm in behavioral sciences research and were more than adequate for the present project.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Part I of the study centered on how often, where, and for what purposes students use computers and the Internet. Part II focused on the importance of various items of information that could be made available on class-specific Web sites. Open-ended questions in the third part of the study attempted to find out about positive and negative experiences students have encountered in learning about computers. In addition, students were asked what UNA can do to help them become more proficient with computers and the Internet in the future.

COMPUTER AND INTERNET USE PATTERNS AMONG STUDENTS

The first question in the survey attempted to determine the self-reported level of computer expertise of each respondent. This question read "Compared to my friends and colleagues, I consider myself to be very knowledgeable about computers." Five possible answers were given in a multiple-choice format. The resulting distribution, in percent, was as follows: "Strongly Agree" (10.7), "Agree" (38.4), "Neutral" (33.8), "Disagree" (14.6), and "Strongly Disagree" (2.6).

When the top two categories, "Strongly Agree" and "Agree" were combined, the College of Business ranked first (54.39 percent) and Arts and Sciences ranked second (47.89 percent.) In terms of GPA, where an "A" is 4.0, students with a 3.0 to 3.5 most frequently ranked themselves in the top two categories while students with lower GPA's consistently ranked themselves in the "Neutral" or lower categories. Based on a question involving the number of computer classes taken, there was a very linear relationship between the number of classes taken and self-reported level of expertise, when the top two categories were combined.

Based on frequently of use, almost half (49.9 percent) of those surveyed use a computer "Every day," while others (27.5 percent) use it "Three times per week," and (12.7 percent) use it "Once per week." Only a small number (10 percent) use the computer less than one time per week.

In noting the most common tasks for which computers were used among all respondents, word processing was reported to be the most frequently used application (89.8 percent), accessing the Internet was second (68.2 percent), games and entertainment were third (55.0 percent), accounting and spreadsheets were fourth (28.8 percent), database applications were fifth (22.1 percent), "other specialized applications not listed" sixth (20.9 percent), graphics applications were seventh (20.0 percent), and statistics and mathematics were eighth (8.1 percent.) Respondents provided multiple responses to the usage part of this question. Most respondents indicated that they use computers for more than one application, although some were single-application users. There was a total of 1233 responses among 393 individuals. This averaged 3.14 application groups used per student.

One surprising finding in the research was the widespread use of computers and the Internet among students surveyed at the University of North Alabama. Not one respondent in the study indicated that they "never use computers" although this was listed as a possible multiple-choice response under that question and each of the other three individual questions in part I. Although provided in a different context, this apparent high rate of computer use at UNA does not logically correspond with the earlier finding that only 32.8 percent of the classrooms in Dr. Kenneth C. Green's study, involving 605 schools, make use of IT in the classroom. A major question comes to mind here . . . "Are students (at UNA and other schools) far more eager to use IT technology in the classroom than professors?" Moreover, 68.2 percent of the students sampled at UNA use computers to access the Internet. Again, this was disproportionately higher than Dr. Green's data. It showed that 24.8 percent of all classes in the Campus Computing Project draw on resources from the Internet. Again, the question arises . . . "Is the potential demand for IT, specifically Internet access, among students much greater than participation rates in the typical classroom?" Although no specific data were found for purposes of direct comparison, the rates of computer and Internet use at UNA greatly exceeded expectations. It is possible that major gaps exist between student IT interests and professors' willingness to (learn and) apply this new technology.

A closer examination of applications for which computers were most frequently used at UNA revealed variations among major fields of study, by college major. Table 2 provides (percent) data on purposes for which computers are used among majors within each of the four colleges. The "other" column includes students that had not selected a major at the time the survey was conducted.

Logical usage patterns are present among students across the four colleges. Most of these patterns do not require lengthy explanation. Word processing is consistently used among all students. The Internet and database programs are used most frequently by Arts/Sciences and Business majors. Education students seem to use games and entertainment programs more often because of the widespread use of these materials in teaching primary and secondary students. Business is the primary user of accounting and spreadsheet programs. Graphics and statistics/math applications are less frequently used by Education and Nursing students.

TABLE 2
STUDENT USE OF COMPUTER APPLICATIONS BY MAJOR FIELD OF STUDY

Computer Application	A&S Percent	Business Percent	Education Percent	Nursing Percent	Other Percent
Word processing	91.67	89.96	91.18	84.44	90.90
Internet	73.61	76.42	55.88	33.33	36.36
Games/entertainment	58.33	54.15	64.71	53.33	36.36
Accounting/spreadsheets	18.06	38.86	5.88	13.33	9.09
Database applications	25.00	25.33	5.88	17.78	9.09
Graphics applications	23.61	22.27	20.59	6.67	27.27
Statistics/math	8.33	10.48	5.88	0	0

The last aspect of computer and Internet use dealt with where students use computers. This question employed a "check all that apply" format, therefore, totals do not sum to 100 percent. The answers provided were "at UNA" (69.2 percent), "at home" (64.6 percent), "at work" (38.9 percent), "at a friend's house" (20.1 percent), and "other" (2.5 percent.) Clearly, the wide availability of computers for student use at the University encourage students to use them and this may be related to the high rates of computer and Internet use discussed earlier.

INFORMATION WANTED BY STUDENTS ON CLASS-SPECIFIC WEB SITES

Part II of the study focused on the importance of various items of information that could be made available on class-specific Web sites. In reality, there are an unlimited number of items that could be made available to students on the Internet. However, since no real guidance on this subject was available in the literature, about all the authors could think to do involved visiting as many professors' web sites as possible to get ideas before developing their own list for use in the questionnaire.

There are many recruiting Web sites for colleges and universities and several textbook authors and publishers web sites on the Internet. However, only a few college class web sites exist on the Internet at this point. Far more elementary school class Web sites were found than for college classes.

In the business disciplines, a few Web class-specific sites found were very creative and contained useful material and colorful graphics. Dr. Charles M. Futrell's site at Texas A&M University [Futrell, 1998] is an example of a well-designed class home page. And, there are other good ones, but most are basic and simple. Two common items were found on most of the class Web sites studied, course descriptions and professors' resumes. Although all four of the coauthors of this paper are from the business discipline, class-specific Web sites were found in several other non-business subject areas. The potential list of useful and relevant materials provided to students may vary somewhat by discipline.

Eighteen items were listed on the questionnaire. Respondents were asked to rank each on a 1-5 scale (where "1" was "not important," "2" was "less important," "3" was neutral, "4" was "more important," and "5" was "most important.") Table 3 lists the 18 items of information and the mean values associated with each item for all respondents in the survey. They are rank-ordered for purposes of comparison.

TABLE 3
IMPORTANCE OF CLASS-SPECIFIC INFORMATION ITEMS ON INTERNET

Items that Could Be Made Available on the Internet	Mean Rank
Teaching notes used by the professor in class	4.47
Checklist form for courses taken in students' major	4.44
Required major and minor courses needed for graduation	4.36
Sample term paper and/or approved term paper outline	4.31
Actual courses offered on the Internet for credit	4.30
Copies of tests and graded projects from previous semesters	4.30
Class agenda, day to day schedule of class activities	4.23
Required outside reading material and journals used in class	4.00
Class syllabus (objectives, grading, office hours, etc.)	3.90
List of Web sites with useful and related material for class	3.85
E-mail addresses of professors at UNA	3.79
Internet class registration for all UNA classes	3.67
UNA calendar of events and class schedules	3.64
List of video classes offered for credit at UNA	3.51
E-mail addresses of other students in class	3.36
Internet address of UNA home page	3.20
Class textbook authors' Web site	3.09
Resume of class professor	2.56

It is readily apparent that "teaching notes" was the most important item. Other similar items "sample term paper," and "old tests and graded projects" were ranked highly important by respondents. It was unexpected that advising functions and class registration items would be ranked so highly from the list provided. Other items such as "textbook authors' Web site address," and "UNA home page address" were ranked lower than expected. Surprisingly, the two most common items found in an earlier Internet search, course descriptions (course syllabus) and the professors' resume, were not shown to be important to students.

Factor Analysis was used to further examine the items of information that could be made available to students, and the results are shown in Table 4. This statistical technique served as a data-reduction tool by summarizing the commonality of all the manifest variables and placing them into a smaller number of similar categories based on similarity of response pattern. The principal component option, coupled with Varimax rotation, was selected for use with Factor Analysis. According to the Varimax criteria, factors retained after rotation have (eigen) values greater than one. The variables with communalities below 0.50 and significant loadings below 0.50 were dropped from consideration. (Communality values and factor loadings data are available from the authors.)

Factor Analysis placed the 18 information items into five factor categories, as shown below. Two items had communality values less than 0.50 and were dropped from consideration. These were "Required outside reading material used in class,"and "Actual courses offered on the Internet by UNA for credit." This does not mean that these items were unimportant, rather, it means that students did not follow similar response patterns when selecting these items. Two "other, write-in" items with a small number of responses were not included.

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TABLE 4
IDENTIFICATION OF FACTOR GROUPS FOR CLASS-SPECIFIC INTERNET WEB PAGES

Factor Groups Identified	Percent Variance Explained
1. Communications and Resources E-mail addresses of other students in class E-mail addresses of professors at UNA UNA calendar of events and schedule of classes UNA home page address Class textbook authors' Web site address Resume of class professor List of Web sites offering useful and related material	30.43
2. University Registration Information List of video classes offered for credit at UNA Actual registration for UNA classes on the Internet	18.78
3. Class Learning Aids Copies of tests and graded projects from previous semesters Teaching notes used by the professor in class Sample term paper and/or approved term paper outline	18.59
4. Basic Class Information Class syllabus, to explain grading, textbook, office hours Class agenda, a day-by-day schedule for the class	16.10
5. Student Advisement Tools Required courses needed for graduation in majors and minors Checklist form for courses taken in students' major area	16.10

One can see that various items of information (that could be made available to students) fit into logically similar groups. Class learning aids (Group 3) and student advising tools (Group 5) were earlier shown to be important. Although speculative, students may assume that basic class information (Group 4) should be provided as hard-copy handouts, rather than being made available electronically. As the Internet becomes more widely used in classes, it is likely that communications information (Group 1) and university registration information (Group 2) will become more important to students.

PROBLEMS IN LEARNING TO USE COMPUTERS AND THE INTERNET

The last part of the questionnaire involved three open-ended questions in which respondents were asked to use their own words to provide information on the following topics:

1. "What is the biggest problem or obstacle that you face(ed) in learning to use the computer?"
2. "What positive or negative experiences have you encountered in learning about and using computers?"
3. What can the University of North Alabama do to help you better understand and learn how to use computers?"

A great majority of the students at UNA have full time and part time jobs while attending classes. Finding the time to learn how to use (and keep up with) computers and the Internet is understandable. Other obstacles, as shown in Table 5, include not having a computer at home or work and the "fear" factor in learning to use computers. These reasons are also understandable.

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TABLE 5
BIGGEST OBSTACLES AND PROBLEMS FACED IN LEARNING TO USE COMPUTERS

Obstacle or Problem Category	Number	Percent
1. Lack of time to learn	55	29.3
2. Keeping up with many different programs and changes	41	21.8
3. Do not have a computer, no "hands-on" experience	15	8.0
4. Knowing how to start, not easy, afraid, "intimidated"	15	8.0
5. Not enough computers at UNA, slow, always problems	14	7.4
6. Computer terms and technical knowledge	13	6.9
7. Problems with specific programs, applications	11	5.9
8. Learning about and accessing the Internet	10	5.3
9. Manuals and books hard to follow	6	3.2
10. Typing skills	5	2.7
11. Miscellaneous: Getting help, printer problems, need more classes	3	1.5
Totals	188	100.0

The major obstacles brought out in the study can and should be addressed in the classroom and by the administration. This can be done through quality teaching and the increased use of computers and the Internet in classes across the four colleges. In addition, continuing to provide increased availability of computers on campus, and constantly upgrading available hardware and software is desirable, though the University is obviously doing quite well in this regard.

Students' positive and negative experiences in learning computers and the Internet, as shown in Table 6, show a real enthusiasm for these powerful educational tools. The number of positive comments outweighed the negative comments by a margin of two to one. The Internet (and e-mail capability) ranked equally high alongside "Makes work and schoolwork easier and faster." Negative comments centered on "Old hardware, technology, and outdated software." It is beyond the scope of this paper to provide a complete overview of the IT situation at UNA. However, it should be noted that the College of Business follows a plan that fully upgrades hardware and software in each of its three labs every three years. At the University level, UNA has earned a reputation for having strong Computer Information Systems and Computer Science programs. The school is considered a real innovator in the computer technology area and has received a good deal of favorable publicity across the State for its progressive posture over the years.

TABLE 6
STUDENT'S POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE EXPERIENCES WHEN LEARNING COMPUTERS

Positive experiences	Number	Percent
1. Makes schoolwork, work easier, faster	28	28.6
2. The Internet, e-mail	26	26.6
3. Using word processors, writing papers, spell checker	20	20.4
4. CIS 325 was helpful, good teaching	6	6.1
5. Feel more comfortable now, easy, interesting	6	6.1
6. Unlimited capabilities, helps organization	5	5.1
7. Helped in career advancement, getting a job	4	4.1

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8. Windows 95, Windows 95 "For Dummies" book	2	2.0
9. Miscellaneous: Lab assistants are in every lab	1	1.0
Positive Experiences Totals	98	100.0
Negative experiences	Number	Percent
1. Old hardware at UNA, computers lock-up, printers, terminals in lab are pathetic, need newer technology	21	37.5
2. Losing unsaved documents, mistakes costly, frustrating	17	30.4
3. Old software at UNA, "Pine" software, DOS orientation, need Windows everywhere	7	12.5
4. Teachers assume students already know computers	5	8.9
5. Teachers, "old school" orientation	3	5.4
6. Do not like AOL	2	3.6
7. Miscellaneous: Help sections do not help	1	1.7
Negative Experiences Totals	56	100.0

The last open-ended question in the survey asked "What can UNA do to help students learn about and use computers?" Two-hundred and thirty-four constructive suggestions were provided by 212 students. Some students contributed more than one reply while others gave none. To simplify the analysis, the comments were placed in 13 categories, as shown in Table 7.

The top two categories accounted for almost two-thirds of the comments made. The main concern was "Need more and better computers available and updated software." Although the authors of this paper have no interest in downplaying this consistent theme from the literature or from the present survey, it should be noted that hardware and software technology is moving at such a rapid pace that it is virtually impossible for an individual or institution to keep up, even if one has unlimited funds. It seems, however, that the administration and IT group should take a closer look at the situation to make sure that the University of North Alabama is keeping up with competitor institutions and marketplace or employer needs.

A second major category of constructive suggestions made by respondents involves the need for more computer classes, seminars, Internet classes, and the increased focus and use of computers in existing classes. The Spring Class Schedule for 1998 shows that many computer and Internet classes are being offered and that enrollment numbers do not exceed classroom capacities. It is possible that students perceive that this is a problem, although a problem may not exist. If this is the case, an improved communications and advisement effort may be the solution.

One thing that can be done to focus more on IT in the classroom is to make more computer technology and Internet resources available to professors and encourage them, through the evaluation and recognition process, to use these effective teaching and learning tools. Failure to make the most of IT on other campuses is a common faculty problem, according to Dr. Kenneth C. Green. He believes that "Faculty recognition and reward are an essential if often ignored component of technology planning" [Green, 1997].

TABLE 7
WHAT UNA CAN DO TO HELP STUDENTS LEARN ABOUT AND USE COMPUTERS

Students Suggestions to UNA	Number	Percent
1. Get more & better equipment, newer technology, up-to-date software, Internet access, computers always breaking, need computers in all classrooms not just labs	78	33.3
2. Offer more classes, beginner classes, free seminars, more Internet classes, add computers in UNA 101 class, tutorial classes, not-for-credit classes	68	29.1

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3. Have more computer tutors, lab assistants	22	9.4
4. Make computer classes mandatory in every major, use computers & Internet in all classes	21	9.0
5. UNA is doing a good job, UNA is doing enough	9	3.8
6. Need computer help in the library	5	2.1
7. Longer computer lab hours needed	5	2.1
8. Offer more classes via the Internet	3	1.3
9. Replace or retrain computer teachers that are not up to date or "who do not make computers fun"	3	1.3
10. Put a computer in every dorm room	2	.9
11. Offer an 800 number for computer help	2	.9
12. Computers should be the first class taken in college	2	.9
13. Miscellaneous: place software manuals in labs, concentrate efforts and use fewer programs, offer more distance learning classes, focus on classes with topics that will be used in the workplace, teach more technical classes, classes needed on publishing (making advertisements, Web design), put signs on computers so students will know which programs are on them, too much of a jump between CS and CS1 classes, computer clubs should be encouraged more, ARC is too small, Internet access for all students is important, put nursing software on all computers, the Internet class was great, lab assistants help a lot	14	5.9
Totals	234	100.0

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Computers and the Internet have become commonplace in our homes, schools, colleges and the workplace. The use of Information Technology in the general population is projected to more than double in the next four years. A major study at the college and university level, published in October of 1997, reported that electronic mail, Internet resources, the Web, and multimedia are increasingly becoming components of the instructional experience. The number of classes using e-mail has grown from 8.0 percent in 1994 to 32.8 percent in 1997. The number of classes drawing on resources from the Internet has increased from 4.0 percent in 1994 to 24.8 percent in 1997. Professors and administrators should take note of these trends. At the present rate of growth, IT components will dominate the delivery of education materials in a few short years. These trends mandate that institutions of higher education use these powerful resources and train students to use them.

In terms of the Internet, the big question that educators must address is how it should be used and, particularly, what specific content should be made available to students on the Internet. Since use of the Internet is so new, the literature provides almost no guidance in this matter. It is for this reason that a large study among 393 randomly selected students at the University of North Alabama (UNA) in Florence, Alabama was completed in January of 1998. Part I of the study centered on how often, where, and for what purposes students use computers and the Internet. Part II focused on finding the importance of various items of information that could be made available to students on class-specific Internet Web sites. Open-ended questions in the third part of the study attempted to learn about positive and negative experiences students have encountered in building computer skills. In addition, students were asked how UNA can help them become more proficient with computers and the Internet in the future.

Surprisingly, a very high percent of UNA students in the study use computers and the Internet. About half of the respondents use a computer daily. Only 10 percent of respondents use computers less that once per week, and every single respondent reported using a computer on some basis. Word processing was reported to be the most frequently used application (89.8 percent) and accessing the Internet ranked second (68.2 percent.) Students reported using computers at UNA most frequently (69.2 percent) and at home (64.6 percent.)

The most important group of items that students want delivered on Internet class Web pages was "class learning aids." This was followed by "student advisement tools," "UNA registration information," "communications and resources," and "basic class information." It was not expected that advising and registration information would be of major interest to students.

The biggest obstacles in learning to use computers and the Internet were "lack of time," "keeping up with many different computer programs and updates," and "do not have a computer or lack computer experience." Student's experiences were generally very enthusiastic in the context of learning about computers and the Internet. A few expressed negative experiences relating to computer hardware and software provided for their use on campus. Two-hundred and thirty-four constructive suggestions were offered in response to the question "What can UNA do to help you learn about and use computers?" The largest category (33.3 percent) of comments dealt with "get more and better computing hardware and software." The next largest category dealt with "offer more computing classes, seminars, and more emphasis on computers in all classes."

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ELECTRONIC NETWORKS AS A COMPETITIVE WEAPON: THE USE OF THE INTERNET FOR COMMERCIAL PURPOSES

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Abstract

Based on a study of a panel of 12 recent business experiences on the Internet in French SMEs, the paper examines the strategic impacts of these new tools. It distinguishes five different patterns of Web sites according to the span of functionalities offered. It offers a typology of the strategic moves that can be implemented through the use of the World Wide Web for commercial purposes. It shows how these new information technologies may seriously impact on the way business is conducted. It shows how Internet could be the ferment of changes in the management of commercial processes and the ferment of dramatic changes in the competitive area.

INTRODUCTION

Over the last couple of years, an explosion of the use of the Internet for commercial purposes has been observed. Commercial use of Internet has grown exponentially, but also sometimes in an anarchistic fashion (e.g. sales of prohibited drugs). Compared to traditional channels (such as telephone), the Internet, as an infrastructure for information transmission (voice, data, text, graphics, pictures, video, ...) allows to carry a huge quantity of data. These new information and communication technologies offer increased speed, greater capacity, enhanced flexibility, greater access, more types of messages and heightened demand (Papp, 1996).

Internet also appears as a means for generating revenue. Electronic commerce may be defined as to sell / buy products, services, information through a telecommunication network. World Internet trade is nevertheless quite reduced (about 1 billion us $ according to Gartner Group).

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objective of this exploratory study was twofold. First, our aim was to understand the different steps through which e-com develops. Second, it was to identify and to specify the range of strategic moves that can be implemented through the use of the World Wide Web for commercial purposes.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Our methodology is based on a field study of concrete experiences. We studied a sample of 12 cases of French SMEs that have developed a Web site for commercial purposes. These cases were identified from an extensive business and professional press review. We tried to cover a large variety of situations, in terms of activities, offer, customers, size, ... Our sample is described in table 1.

TABLE 1
SAMPLE STUDIES

clients / offer	general	firms
product	FURET DU NORD PETZL UBI SOFT	AXON CABLE DIGIGRAM ESPACE BUREAUTIQUE SOCLA SUPERVOX
commerce bank & service	CREDIT MUTUEL de BRETAGNE DEGRIFTOUR RELAIS & CHATEAUX	MENWAY CONSULTANTS

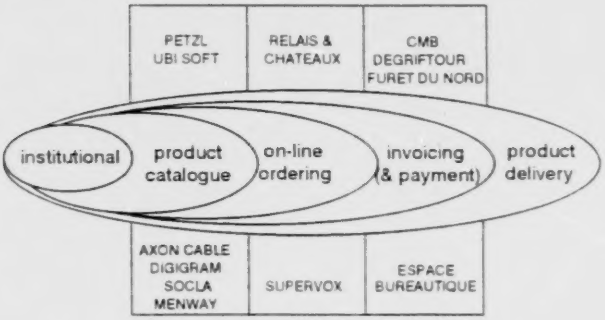
We investigated each case study along the following four dimensions: (a) Identification of the company: business sector, key figures, competitive environment, strategy, catalogue of products, ... (b) Aims of the Web site: its origin, strategy for the site, publics targeted, expectations of the firm, ... (c) Resources allocated: schedule of conditions, creation and hosting of the site, problems encountered, marketing resources implemented for promotion, (d) Results achieved: organizational consequences of the site, measurement of the results, position *vis-à-vis* competition, ...

Three data collection methods were used: business & professional press review related to the case, analysis of the Web site, and interviews (two hours on average) with the managers in charge of the Web site. Gathered data was synthesized into individual reports per firm (7 to 8 pages) sharing the same analysis framework (as described above). Each report was sent for validation by the person interviewed.

A FIVE STEPS MODEL OF E-COM DEVELOPMENT

We infer from our investigation five different patterns of Web sites. They can be distinguished according to the span of functionalities they offer. Figure 1 depicts these five patterns. The firms in our sample were ranged in those categories; cases cited on the top of the drawing are companies that address the general public while firms quoted on the bottom operate mainly in a Business-to-Business environment.

FIGURE 1
FUNCTIONALITIES OFFERED



These patterns range from providing institutional information to customers to running complete commercial transactions. Between the two extremes of this continuum, some firms offer catalogues of their products, on-line ordering and even on-line payment. We will stress later that the fifth pattern, delivery, is limited to the delivery of "information products".

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The five different patterns that will be described in this section represent also five different steps. Each step requires more efforts: the investments and maintenance costs increase when firms move from left to right in the figure. The first step, the institutional site, is the easiest to implement; it requires a very limited investment and a very limited budget for maintenance. On the opposite, the fourth step raises several problems (such as securisation of the payment) much more complicated and costly to solve.

Institutional Sites

A large number of firms have entered the Web with limited ambitions. Their sites only display information about the company, its competencies, its history,... Sometimes they also display dealers' or service support addresses, frequently asked questions,... They are a kind of corporate leaflet. Those choices may be interpreted as a willingness to show an "http address" for institutional purposes. They may also represent a first step into the Web foreshadowing a more aggressive approach in a near future.

The companies we choose to analyze went beyond this rudimentary offer. Nevertheless, most of the interviewees agreed to consider a Web site as a tool for promoting their institutional or corporate image. They view it as a vehicle for developing or maintaining a dynamic and / or high-tech image: the company shows itself close to new technologies and new means for communications. Several firms mentioned also that they aimed to be pioneers in their sectors. Being among the first allows to learn, to acquire competencies, to build experience.

Product Catalogue

A shown in figure 1, six firms out of the twelve in our sample went to a second step that we summarized as the "product catalogue". In addition to the institutional information discussed above, their Web sites offer an easy access to a database describing their products. The range of products shown on these electronic catalogues by the firms in our sample is very large: it covers products as different as electronic plugs (*Axon Câble*), valves (*Socla*), mountain sports equipment (*Petzl*) or job-seekers (*Menway*). Most of the time, a set of different criteria allows to quickly reach the product the customer is looking for. Products are usually described in technical terms and illustrated with a photograph. Compared to a traditional paper catalogue, the electronic catalogue offers an easier access, at any time, and may be quickly updated at a lower cost by the supplier.

In addition to the electronic catalogue, these sites frequently offer information on the different points of sales where the product can be bought. These sites remain however limited as they do not allow on-line ordering. The customer is forced to use classical means (phone, fax, ...) to place an order.

Illustration: Petzl is a SME, located in Grenoble, employing about 150 persons. The company is specialized in the design and the manufacturing of equipment dedicated to the practice of mountain sports (climbing, mountaineering, cannoning, speleology, ...). Its products reach the final customers through the channel of distributors (such as retailing chains of sports products). Its Web site was launched in 08/1995. It offers, in five different languages, a detailed presentation (technical description + photo) of the firm's 80 products (helmets, harness, snap hook, frontal lamps, ...). It gives also the list of the firms distributing Petzl's products and offers an e-mail service. This Web site allowed the company to promote its range of products and to establish a relationship with its final customers. Yet, its site does not permit to put an order on a product.

On-line Ordering

In addition to the features described previously, these Web sites allow the user to order a product identified in the electronic product catalogue. Here lies probably one of the main issues related to Web sites (that will be elaborated in the last section): as Web sites permit to directly reach end customers, they potentially open avenues for manufacturers to by-pass their distribution networks.

The two sites in our sample which offer this functionality cover two different types of business (travel industry for *Relais & Châteaux* and do-it-yourself products for *Supervox*). This means that this approach does not seem to be restricted to a certain kind of business. It should be noticed that most of the Web sites that we labeled as "product catalogue" sites in the previous category could easily implement an on-line ordering functionality.

Illustration: Relais & Châteaux is a non profit association serving as a booking center for its members. This alliance joins together more than 400 luxurious hostelries with small capacities. Its customers' portfolio is strongly international (mainly American). Its Web site was opened in 02/1995 (and revised in 04/1996). All the locations are described following the same model as the one offered by the paper guide. The advantage of this electronic catalogue is a quick and easy access to the offers that satisfy a set of criteria defined by the customer (country, price charged, services such as swimming pool, health center, animals, ...). Links were established with providers of peripheral services (such as e.g. car renting). The Web site facilitates sales to customers all around the world as it allows one customer to book nights and associated services which satisfy its needs. However, it does not permit an electronic payment, which has to be done through classical means.

A striking feature of this third kind of site is that it permits the user to interact with the firm at a higher degree than the classical e-mail. However, these "on-line ordering" Web sites do not allow the user to pay their invoice. They still need to rely on traditional means.

On-line Payment

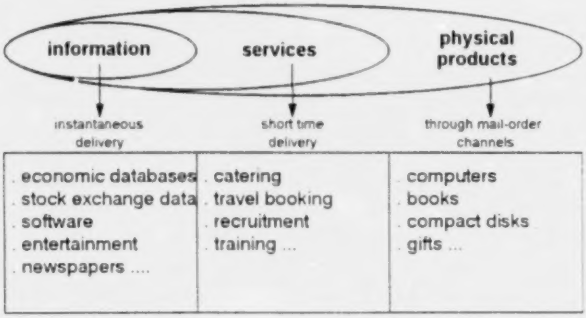
Three firms of our sample (*Dégriftour, Furet du Nord, Espace Bureautique*)[1] allow users to complete an 'almost' full electronic transaction: choose an item, order it and pay the bill. On-line payment is not so developed because technical solutions to secure transactions just begin to emerge.

Illustration: Espace Bureautique is a small company (with a regional scope) that distributes computers and software. Its first pilot Web site in 11/1995 displayed information about the firm and offered on-line preliminary estimations. Its last new site was opened at the beginning of 1997; it allows the conclusion of a full commercial transaction. The customer is never forced to visit the shop: it is distance sale.

Delivery

We said previously that the transaction is 'almost' full, because the delivery of the item necessarily relies on a mail-order delivery when the item is a physical product! This point is illustrated by figure 2.

FIGURE 2
PRODUCT DELIVERY WITH E-COM



The ultimate stage, delivery, may only be done through the Web when the firm's "product" is data information, such as economic databases, software, entertainment products, newspapers, ...

There is no company in our sample that allow to settle full commercial transactions with a delivery through the Web. Nevertheless, *Digigram* has made it possible for some of its partners to download software developed by the company; and *Ubi Soft*, which commercializes software products, allows to freely download demonstration versions of its products.

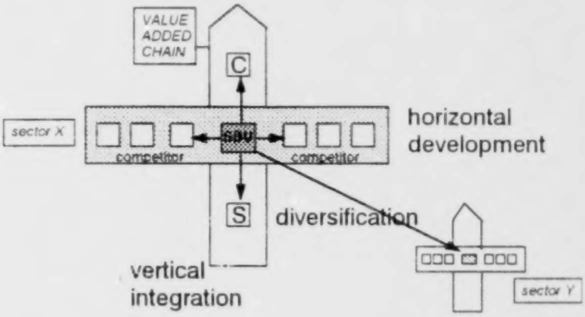
To sum up, doing business on the Internet offers several advantages - outpacing a simple promotion of the institutional or corporate image. Our examples show that electronic catalogues offer a powerful access to a firm's range of products. Also, on-line ordering, as well as electronic payment, strongly simplify the commercial process.

To conclude this section, we may predict that the future of the electronic commerce will depend on firms' abilities to move from rudimentary institutional sites (1) to the ultimate stage (4) where a full commercial transaction can be done. Yet, moving from stage (3) to stage (4) also depends on the technical solutions for securing transactions on the Internet.

SPAN OF STRATEGIC MOVES OFFERED THROUGH THE INTERNET

How does electronic commerce fit into company's strategy? How far is it related to business goals? Is it a strategic decision or another bandwagon (McBride, 1997)?
It is widely recognized in the strategic management literature (see e.g. the seminal work of Chandler) that the development of a given single firm (or SBU) can be accomplished through three kinds of strategic moves depicted by figure 3.

FIGURE 3
THREE STRATEGIC MOVES



Horizontal development relates to the firm's strategy within the field of its current activities. It means expanding competitive position (the black square on the figure), gaining access to new customers in a given sector (the gray area on the figure). But, such a move is locked inside the boundaries of the sector. In order to widen the scope of its business, a firm may adopt a vertical integration along its value chain or a diversification strategy. All these three moves can be implemented either through organic or external growth; the strategy may be either autonomous or cooperative (Jolly, 1995).

Our field investigation showed that the use of the World Wide Web for electronic commerce may serve these three main strategic purposes: (1) expanding a company's horizontal competitive position, i.e. inside its core business, (2) entering into more or less related areas to the business base through diversification, (3) enlarging the business base through vertical integration.

Expanding a Company's Horizontal Competitive Position

A total of 9 companies in our sample use their Web site for re-enforcing their competitive position inside their business. Depending of the nature of their business, some companies use their site mainly for domestic purposes, while others use it for reaching contacts all around the world. Those which are focused on the national territory (*Crédit Mutuel de Bretagne*, *Dégriftour*, *Espace Bureautique*, *Menway Consultants*) have most of their customers inside this area and do not aim to recruit new customers outside of it. Companies aiming the all world (*Axon Câble*, *Digigram*, *Petzl*, *Socla*, *Ubi Soft*) were already involved with activities all around the world before the development of their Web site.

The reinforcement of a competitive position in the framework of a horizontal development means gaining access to new customers in the core sector of the firm, i.e. the sector the firm is familiar with. The position of a firm inside a given sector is, on the long term, strongly related to its competitive advantage *vis-à-vis* competitors. Competitive advantage may be defined as the ratio between the perceived value of the offer and the delivered cost. In order to improve its competitive advantage, a firm should aim an increase of the perceived value and / or a decrease of the delivered cost (Gilbert & Strebel, 1987).

We will show hereafter that a Web site may have an impact on these two axes: the perceived product value could be increased, because the Web allows to offer more services to the customers (such as the electronic catalogue we talked about in the previous section); the delivered cost may be lessened, because the Web may provoke some dramatic changes in the way a value chain is organized (e.g. by reducing the investment into physical infrastructures).

Offering New Facilitating Services to Customers

Benjamin & Wigand (1995) put forward that electronic commerce sites favors savings on transaction costs for customers. We derived from our sample that three kinds of related advantages can be distinguished:

- it facilitates and reduces the cost of accessing a (constantly updated) information through: electronic products catalogues offering multiple access keys, simulation and computation software for preliminary estimate (notably for technical products), lists of distributors, points of sales, retailers, ...
- it facilitates the relationship between the firm and its customers (particularly with foreigners) via the e-mail,
- it reduces ordering lead-time.

Illustration: Dégriftour was created in 1991. It is still the sole French travel agency without any physical branch. It is specialized into the re-selling of unsold articles of some 1 500 firms from the tourism industry. Since its birth, the company has been working on the Minitel platform in order to reach the general public. Since the end of 1995, it opened in parallel a Web site, entirely developed with internal resources. A full transaction can be done through the Web. It allowed to reach new customers and consequently to increase Dégriftour's horizontal competitive position by gaining market shares in its sector.

Reducing The Delivered Cost

Our case studies showed that the implementation of a Web site have several impacts on the delivered cost: it lessens the cost of physical infrastructure and the cost of updating information (commercial brochures, product's catalogues, distributors & prices lists, ...); it restricts the risks of inaccuracy, double saving, mistakes; it limits the mailing cost and offer new marketing approaches much more tailored to customers' needs, such as customized products catalogues; it offers marketing information on a large scale at a cost close to zero.

Illustration: Menway Consultants is a HRM consulting firm specialized in the recruiting of engineers and executive for high-tech firms (working, in particular, for sectors related to information technologies). Its Web site, opened in 12/1996, first targets professions in the electronic and microelectronics sectors. It offers two entry points: (1) for people looking for a job: consultation of a database itemizing positions to fill and freely (to date) collection of applications, (2) and for clients firms: consultation of the 12 000 CV database managed by Menway Consultants. The firm planned to gain drastic savings from its site, in particular on the diffusion of the job positions offered, as the Web is 20 times less costly than press advertising.

Diversifying Activities Through the Internet

Diversification means entering new activities more or less related to the firm's core business (the diagonal arrow on figure 3); usually, firms use their activity base for entering new customers segments, new countries, for enlarging the range of functions offered, for diversifying the technology portfolio (Abell. 1980). Three kind of diversification will be considered: (1) reaching new customers segments, (2) reaching new countries, and (3) diversifying into Information Technology businesses.

Reaching New Customers Segments

It means targeting segments of customers to which the firm is not accustomed to work. For example, it is the case of a firm delivering its offer to a specific kind of industry, different from the one it is used to target. It is also the case of a firm serving mass-markets with slight adaptations of products developed for professional markets.

Illustration: Supervox was, at the start, a manufacturer of injected plastic products. The firm has been enlarging for five years the scope of its activities: an ever increasing part of its turn-over is generated in the distribution of do-it-yourself products which are supplied to a network of 5 500 large department stores (dedicated and none-dedicated to do-it-yourself products). The company opened its Web site in 03/1997 to serve its diversification towards small and medium food stores (less than 2 000 square meters). As a matter of fact, the turn-over generated by these firms in do-it-yourself products is to low for *economically justifying the visit of sales agents. The site records the 250 to 300 products references that represent the best sales (out a total of 7 500 different products). The access to the site is restricted to authorized customers which are furnished by Supervox with the required computer equipment for communicating (here, Internet is the medium of an Extranet). Customers are able: (1) to define their own position vis-à-vis shelves' profiles framed with statistical data collected by Supervox, (2) to place an order to refill their shelves (goods are delivered according to agreements settled with a carrier). The firm plans to reach 800 new customers in a three year period and to increase its turn-over of 40 million francs through the Web (to be compared to the actual turn-over of 350 million francs).*

Reaching New Countries

This move is the case of geographical diversification. It means expanding the geographical boundaries of the firm's core business by delivering products and services on new territories. It is, for example, the case of a firm which has originally developed its activities in France and tries to sell its offering in one or more neighbor countries.

Illustration: Furet du Nord is a bookstore with a general public clientele, mostly regional, through a network of 13 points of sales in the north of France; some large accounts are also served across France (it must be reminded that the book price is compelled to a unique price policy by a French law). Benefiting from an architecture developed for the French Minitel network, the firm opened a Web site in 06/1996 to outpace its French base and reach a French-speaking clientele at the scale of the planet. This site offers a double service to users: (1) access to a database recording almost 250 000 references (on the 350 000 more or less lively references of francophone publishing), (2) ordering of the selected books (matched with a secured payment with a credit card). Still in running, the site has produced limited results until now.

This case illustrates one of the main advantages of the use of the Web for commercial purposes. It allows, for a very limited investment, to access to a large geographical coverage. As such, many firms can significantly widen the scope of their international activities.

Diversifying Into IT Businesses

Pioneers in the use of Internet for commercial purposes faced an unstructured domain where entry costs were relatively low and with few expert suppliers of Internet services. Some of these firms decided to enter this new business and became providers and developers of sites. As a consequence, entering on the Internet for developing a firm's core business represented an opportunity to develop entirely new activities.

Our sample contains two examples of these moves. The implementation of the Web of the *Crédit Mutuel de Bretagne* came with a diversification into Internet services (providing Internet access, hosting of firms in an electronic mall,...); a dedicated subsidiary, *Eurobretagne*, was entrusted the development of this activity. The same kind of move was accomplished by *Dégriftour*.

This diversification unrelated to their core activities was successful because of few entry barriers into Internet related businesses. Conditions are now changing rapidly. Several leading IT actors (such as IBM or Microsoft) have now developed strong services and invested hugely in the business. The moves described in this paragraph will probably not be realistic for other potential new entrants in a near future.

Vertical Integration Through the Internet

Vertical integration means moving along the value added chain (vertical axis on figure 3); it can be done either backward (by entering the suppliers' business) or forward (by penetrating customers' business). There is no company in our sample that has implemented such a complete move through the Internet. But some of them moved slightly towards their customers. It is, for example, the case of *Petzl* (described upper). Until now, the products of *Petzl* follow the channels of specialized distributors to reach end customers. It should be reminded that the Web allowed the company to establish a straight link with these actors. The company deliberately chose not to offer the option of placing an order for a product, but to re-direct prospects to its distributors. Obviously, the strategy was to protect its distribution networks and not to ruin its forward relationships. This point is a real strategic challenge as its North American competitor, REI, implemented an ordering function on its own site. The same pattern prevails for Ubi Soft.

CONCLUSION

The case studies presented in this paper showed that the use of Internet for commercial purposes allows to gain several advantages. Doing business on Internet help to:

- promote a dynamic and / or high-tech institutional or corporate image of the firm,
- improve the performance of the commercial process by increasing the value of the services offered to customers through functionalities such as electronic catalogues, on-line ordering and on-line payment,
- reduce the promotion, marketing and even administrative costs and also to save on physical infrastructure investments,
- gain access to new customer segments and to widen the scope of their international activities through an easy and weak cost access to customers all over the world,
- initiate a forward vertical integration, i.e. towards customers, at a reduced cost.
- Nevertheless, electronic commerce also suffers from several economic, marketing and societal limits:
- even if the population connected to the Internet is constantly growing, the number of people connected stays narrow. The investment required (equipment and knowledge) still represents an entry barrier for users. In addition, this population is concentrated in very specific segments such as professionals, executives, liberal professions and other intellectual professions,
- the Internet may be blamed for facilitating the flow of information to competitors and to counterfeiting manufacturers,
- it seems that there is a fear of Internet; issues such as securing electronic payment are not completely solved,
- marketing issues, such as consumer behaviors towards this new form of commerce, needs to be explored; the question is: are consumers willing to buy without going to a retail store? will they accept to loose (analogies should probably be drawn for mail-order),
- the channels for the delivery of physical products may suffer: may the product be physically (fast) delivered through mail-order channels?
- finally if emerge a market maker for providing the customer with an access to a number of manufacturers of the same product, the risk of price wars increases.

ENDNOTES

1. Dominique Jolly, Professor at Grenoble Graduate School of Business *(Groupe ESC Grenoble*) wrote this article for the "Centre Time" within the framework of the TBP-TIME project (European Commission, DGIII, ESPRIT-TBP).

2. The author would like to express his appreciation of the work done by Jérôme Habauzit, graduate student of Groupe ESC Grenoble and research assistant, in conducting the interviews.

3. The fourth case study that we range under this label is slightly different as it is the on-line banking service offered by *Crédit Mutuel de Bretagne*.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

MODERN MACHINERY COMPANY: A MULTI-DISCIPLINARY, INTERACTIVE CASE IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

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Abstract

Until 1945, Modern Machinery dominated the worldwide metalforming press market. Its competitive advantage: sales, engineering, and hundreds of technological innovations. However, the marketplace changed and Modern lost its leadership. Recently, a large multinational conglomerate purchased Modern with the intention of returning the company to its market leader position. Tracing the environmental, competitive, and technological factors that have affected Modern, this case presents the challenges and opportunities facing Modern's new management. The case embraces several business disciplines, including marketing, management, technology transfer, accounting, and finance. The Modern Machinery Company case is presented in two formats—traditional paper and in CD-ROM.

PLANNING FOR SUCCESS

When Tom Bonner decided to accept the offer to become Modern Machinery's new Director of Marketing, he knew that TWE, a large, international conglomerate, might acquire the company. Tom had thoroughly researched the company and despite the reports of the company recent loss of market share, Tom felt that the company's long-standing reputation for research and development could form the basis for a recovery. Furthermore, Tom was impressed with the company culture implied in its vision statement,

VISION STATEMENT OF MODERN MACHINERY COMPANY

Modern Machinery satisfies worldwide customers by providing metalforming and plasticforming presses and related services that are state-of-the art technology, and are delivered and installed to job sites on time, and are serviced and maintained by Modern for the life of the press. Source: Annual Report of Modern Machinery, 1997.

Six weeks after Tom joined Modern, TransWorld Enterprises, a global industrial conglomerate, announced its acquisition of Modern. TWE's interest in Modern was based on the compatibility of Modern's product line with other TWE operating divisions; its global orientation; and the potential to bring the company back to a dominant market position.

While TWE felt that the acquisition of Modern would be a good long-term investment, TWE management knew that several issues needed to be resolved before Modern would be able to realize its potential for TWE stockholders. When Tom Bonner arrived at his office on Monday morning, he found the following memo:

MEMO

to: *Tom Bonner, Director of Marketing*
Modern Machinery Company

from: *Alice McCalley, Sr. VP, Strategic Planning*
TransWorld Enterprises

subject: *Strategic Direction and Plans for Modern Machinery*

date: *May 1*

Welcome to the TWE family of globally-oriented companies, Tom. We are looking forward to a long and profitable relationship with you and Modern.

We acquired Modern because we believe that with attention to the market as well as to the external and internal environments, the company can return to the number one position in its market, thus making a significant contribution to TWE's continuing development.

I would appreciate your reactions to Modern's current marketplace situation. Additionally, we would appreciate your ideas on how Modern can move forward toward regaining the number one market position.

During Tom's first month with Modern he visited manufacturing and distributor sites, talked with customers and prospects, met with the personal sales staff, and studied market data. His background in business-to-business marketing was helpful in interpreting what he saw, heard, and read. Tom knew that the Modern situation would demand all of his skill in strategic thinking and planning for the role of marketing in the turnaround of Modern.

SITUATION ANALYSIS

BACKGROUND

While the Great Depression of the 1930s brought the end to many businesses, it also presented opportunity to those whose vision of the future included mass production. The founders of the Modern Machinery Company were among those who felt there was a bright future for a company that could design, manufacture, install, and service heavy manufacturing equipment.

Founded in 1936 in Chicago, Illinois,U.S.A., Modern Machinery engineers, builds, and markets large metalforming and plasticforming presses. Principal users of this equipment are manufacturers of automobiles, aircraft, electronics, furniture, and other miscellaneous metal and plastic parts. The vast majority of the industry's sales has been accounted for by three Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) codes; however, Modern has also designed and manufactured presses that produced bowling balls, clothing, synthetic diamonds, and compact powdered materials.

Although the machine tool industry has undergone a number of severe recessions over the years, Modern has grown from a small (six employees) machinery builder to one of the world's largest manufacturers of sophisticated production systems. By the mid-1990s, Modern's main manufacturing facility covered just less than 1 million square feet and employed over 2000 skilled technicians. In addition to the U.S. manufacturing facility, Modern has manufacturing agreements with companies in eight countries outside the U.S. The company's worldwide sales effort is controlled from nine sales offices in the U.S. and six abroad. Supplementing the direct sales force are 44 distributor organizations—19 in the U.S. and 25 in other countries.

MARKET DEMAND FACTORS

The market potential for Modern Machinery is tied to a number of interdependent, macro-environmental forces. For example, consumer purchasing patterns directly and indirectly influences the derived demand associated with the purchase of capital equipment, such as machine tools. These purchasing patterns are governed by socio-cultural factors like values and attitudes, as well as demographic characteristics such as age, income, education and occupation. For example, the automotive industry invests heavily in capital equipment when it anticipates strong consumer demand for automobiles. This demand is grounded in positive consumer beliefs and attitudes about their economic well being and a willingness to use savings or incur debt to purchase a new car.

The type of car is also influenced by consumer values regarding styling and design characteristics that can also determine the type of machine tools and accessories that are specified by the automobile manufacturer. This ability to create new aerodynamic styling and higher performance models is directly linked to the capacity of new machine tools to work with state of the art materials and design specifications. A good example of this was the important contribution that Modern made to the design and manufacture of presses that could form large plastic components for automobiles. Many years ago, Modern worked closely with the U.S. automobile manufacturers to design and manufacture large, plasticforming presses.

The economy itself is collectively influenced by the purchase decisions made by consumers and organizational buyers. GNP growth leads to more investment and jobs which spurs further increases in consumer buying power. This buying power translates into higher profits which then leads to additional investment in capital equipment. Conversely, the past decline in world economies, particularly in Europe and Japan, has resulted in the industry being placed in a survival mode. While there are ongoing attempts to identify the predictors of sales fluctuations in the machine tool industry, an examination of a thirty-year sales history shows considerable fluctuations. See Tables 1 and 2. Recent sales increases in the machine tool industry have led to profits that allowed technological enhancements through commitments to research and development.

The physical environment has also impacted the market for machine tools. The extensive damage done by flooding in the Midwest (USA) delayed shipments and also resulted in the cancellation of orders. Hurricanes in the Southeast and record snowfall in the Northeast also affected the operations of the machine tool industry. As disruptive as these events can be, their effects are usually short-term, and the physical environment does not place significant constraints on the design and manufacture of machine tools.

Fluctuations in international currencies also impact the machine tool industry: a weak U.S. dollar tends to enhance the export market for U.S. machine tools. For example, the U.S. machine tool industry had a strong 1994 and much of the 42% gain over 1993 was the result of the 69% increase in exports.

The political/legal forces such as the institution of NAFTA have had a significant impact on international sales of machine tools. Similarly, the effect of large deficits has been to keep interest rates high and the dollar relatively soft. However, quotas and tariffs imposed by both the United States and other governments have had a dampening effect on sales. In addition, the voluntary restraint agreements signed in 1987 with foreign manufacturers have expired resulting in tougher competition in the U.S. market.

The weakness of the dollar and the domestic content requirements for the “Made in the USA” mark has also brought with increased manufacturing activity in the U.S. by international competitors. In recent years, a number of Japanese and European machine tool builders have expanded their manufacturing operations into the USA through acquisitions, mergers, and joint ventures.

Competition in the machine tool market has been a fascinating study on the fluctuations of a major U.S. industry. Complacency, neglect and government restrictions on the export and import of sophisticated machine tools severely damaged the industry. The companies that survived did so by restructuring and adopting one of two marketing strategies: (1) merging and offering a broad line of machine tools, or (2) narrowing the product line and focusing on specialty niches. This restructuring was enhanced by import restrictions imposed by the U.S. government on foreign manufacturers. These restrictions lapsed in 1993 and have resulted in an intensification of competition from the Japanese and

Europeans. However, NAFTA provides U.S. firms a 20% price advantage in Canada and Mexico; therefore, several U.S. machine tool builders are trying to penetrate these markets. Furthermore, with the recent resurgence of other world economies, more U.S. machine tool builders are engaging in exporting or some type of international strategic alliance. The result of these international forces has been that 40% of the companies that were in the machine tool business 20 years ago no longer exist: they were not able to make the transition from a domestic to an international marketplace. As the industry prepares for the second half of the 1990's, many experts feel that after years of painful streamlining, consolidation, and technological gains, the industry is poised for growth. See Table 3.

Even though machine tools are high-priced products with margins supporting a direct sales effort, a major approach to establishing a foreign presence is develop partnerships with similar or related companies, i.e., joint ventures and strategic alliances. Through these partnerships, firms can gain access to suppliers and intermediaries. Although many companies when first starting their international marketing operations utilize intermediaries, i.e., export management companies and other foreign distributors, facilitating agencies such as banks, freight forwarders, market research companies, and advertising agencies are also important to the success of companies like Modern Machinery. While value is added through the technical and customer service provided by suppliers, intermediaries, and facilitating agencies, controlling the performance of these independent entities is an ongoing challenge.

OPPORTUNITIES AND ISSUES

The dramatic changes that have taken place in the machine tool industry pose significant challenges to industry participants. However, Tom Bonner can see many opportunities for Modern, particularly when he considered the company's strengths, which include:

- the investment the company has made in its restructuring and modernization should result in a more efficient workforce and lower costs. The technology training it has provided to its workforce has enhanced the morale of personnel and has shown signs of generating productivity gains.
- a strong company reputation for quality and technical service.
- an international presence.
- the financial resources of TWE.

Tom felt that these strengths should help Modern take advantage of an array of domestic and international opportunities. At the same time, he was also aware of the many issues he would have to address in his response to Alice McCalley, including:

- the growing number of foreign machine tool companies expanding and opening new facilities in the U.S.
- the impact of various political and economic factors throughout the world.
- the increasing sensitivity of customers to Modern's high price strategy.
- Modern's absence of a strong partner in certain foreign markets.
- decreasing levels of customer satisfaction.

MARKETING PLAN OBJECTIVES

Tom's response to Alice McCalley would have to contain his recommendations on a number of issues, including marketing and financial, objectives. To obtain sufficient background for this important task, Tom asked for and received the objectives that had been developed last year. These marketing and financial objectives included:

MARKETING OBJECTIVES

- to achieve a 7% increase in unit sales.
- to achieve a 7% increase in dollar sales.
- to expand worldwide market share from 16% to 18%.
- to maintain a sales-to-expense ratio of 8%.
- to enhance positive customer attitudes toward the company. Specifically,

—to improve "favorable" ratings on overall company image from 60% to 65%.
—to improve "favorable" ratings on customer services from 43% to 48%.
—to improve "favorable" ratings on product quality from 75% to 78%.

FINANCIAL OBJECTIVES

- to obtain an overall contribution margin of 35%
- to attain profits after taxes of $2.5 million.
- to achieve a return on investment of 9%

Tom now needed to evaluate whether these objectives were comprehensive enough as well as whether they met the criteria of good objectives.

MARKETING STRATEGY

Modern never adopted a formal strategy for the marketing of its products and services. From its early history the company was the industry leader, and for the most part adopted marketing behavior that was consistent with a leader. The company's management seemed to understand that it was providing the most technologically-advanced products, the best manufacturing processes, and the highest levels of service. It seemed only natural that they would charge the highest prices. Also, Modern's commitment to high levels of marketing communications, including personal selling, exhibitions, and advertising were consistent with its industry leadership. This behavior forced competitors to follow Modern's lead, trying to offer better value through lower prices, or in some cases, identifying target markets that they could serve better than Modern. Clearly, Bonner would have to reassess Modern's strategy in light of the changing marketplace. The first step in this strategic assessment is to identify high potential target markets.

TARGET MARKETS

The major purchasers of machine tools are concentrated in four Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) categories. Specifically, machinery (except electrical), fabricated metal products, electrical machinery and transportation account for 82% of U.S. machine tool sales. The remaining 17% is spread out over five other SIC codes. See Table 4. In 1995, the U.S. machine tool industry derived 15% of its sales from exports. Although the market for machine tools is quite diverse in terms of applications and geographic location, Modern focuses on three target segments (see Table 5):

U.S. Domestic Metalworking Market

This industry has traditionally accounted for the largest percentage of Modern's sales and it continues to be the most important segment today. It is estimated that there are 40,000 metalworking plants in the United States (with twenty or more employees) and over 400,000 buying influences in these plants.

As shown in Table 6, 39% of all machine tools in use in the U.S. are located in five geographic areas of the country. In addition to geographic location, Modern identified four major job functions that are most important in the decision to buy a machine tool: a. administrative; b. production; c. engineering; and d. purchasing.

The relative importance of each of these functions varies by size and organizational structure of customer (see Table 7); therefore, Modern attempts to contact all job functions among its customers and prospects. While this is impossible for the personal selling staff, advertising has provided an efficient and effective way to communicate with the large number of buying influences.

International Metalworking Market

Because Modern also manufactures and markets its products outside the U.S., a significant portion of its marketing resources is allocated to this market segment. Outside the U.S., it was generally felt that the administrative function is far more important than it is within the U.S. Because Modern had developed so many of the industry's production processes, the international metalworking market has always been very important to the success of Modern.

U.S. Plasticforming Market

This has been a major growth area for Modern and others in the industry as an increasingly large number of manufactured products and parts are being made of various forms of plastic. Modern was an early pioneer in the design and manufacture of plasticforming presses, particularly in the U.S., so the company held an almost unchallenged position for many years. However, Modern now faces stiff competition from a number of U.S. and non-U.S. companies.

Modern's marketing efforts to this market segment were initially quite small, particularly when the market was just developing. As competition developed, Modern expended more resources on this segment, including personal selling, exhibitions, and advertising.

Within all three segments, Modern focuses primarily on the automotive target and on other large manufacturing applications such as aircraft. As a result, Modern—like its major competitors—evolved into a company that served the manufacturing needs of a relatively small number of potential customers throughout the world. Each customer—and each potential order—was very important to Modern as well as to its competitors. Given this situation, Modern placed a priority on knowing the industry and its customers well.

MARKETING TACTICS

PRODUCT

According to the National Machine Tool Builders' Association (now The Association for Manufacturing Technology), machine tools are "...power-drive machines, not portable by hand, used to shape or form metal by cutting, impact, pressure, electrical techniques, or a combination of these processes.". Essentially, machine tools are classified into two categories:

1. metalcutting machine tools (SIC 3541): boring mills, lathes, grinders, polishers, drilling machines, gear-cutting machines.
2. metalforming machine tools (SIC 3542): punching and shearing machines, bending and forming machine hydraulic, mechanical, and forging presses.

Nearly all large metalforming and plasticforming equipment is built to customer specifications. Although each of the major press builders holds hundreds of patents on various press components and/or systems, none of these features is felt to be clearly superior to competitive features. Press builders therefore compete primarily on the basis of price, delivery, service, and overall engineering and production capabilities. Modern enjoys a reputation as an industry leader because of its research and development efforts, its capability to build the largest and most sophisticated machinery, and its worldwide manufacturing, service, and sales facilities.

Although the machine tool itself has not experienced any dramatic technological breakthroughs in recent years, the addition of numerical controls (CNC) machines and improved CAD-CAM computer software have reduced costs and improved quality control. The move to more standardized machines with fewer parts, brought on by the Japanese, has reduced manufacturing costs and improved flexibility. The Swiss machine tool manufacturers, whose strategy has relied on customization and a premium price, have been particularly vulnerable to this new type of competitive thrust.

The other major development is the capacity of the machine tool manufacturers to develop products to process all types of materials, e.g. polymers, and for every type of fabricated product, from kitchen gadgets to satellites.

PRICE

Machine tools involve a capital expenditure, and single machines can cost several million dollars. The importance of such an investment means that the sales cycle is often quite long, frequently involving months, if not years, of working closely with the top management, financial management, and design and manufacturing engineers within the buying organization.

Like the Swiss machine tool builders, Modern adopted a prestige pricing strategy: their prices are typically 10—25% higher than competition but consistent with their high quality. Modern did not experience much price resistance until the mid 1970s. In the early years of the company's history, there were few competitors, and even when competitors emerged in the U.S. and in other countries, Modern had already established such a strong reputation that buyers were reluctant to place a significant order with competitors. However, in recent times, Modern—along with the other prestige-pricing companies in this industry—experienced more formidable competition and buyers became much more price sensitive. These new pressures have caused considerable challenges for Modern since larger profit margins were required to support their research and development efforts and to maintain their worldwide sales, service, and manufacturing operations.

A recent industry survey indicated that price was gaining in importance as a factor in determining supplier selection. In the U.S. market, price is now the second most important factor, and in Europe, price was considered the third most important factor in supplier selection. See Table 8.

DISTRIBUTION

Common industry practice is to sell machine tools through a direct sales staff and machinery distributors. Modern maintains a sales staff of 50 sales people located in nine U.S. sales offices and also uses nineteen U.S. distributor organizations. While the company sells its products for a wide variety of applications, Modern's strength was in the automotive industry—a large but highly cyclical market concentrated in the Detroit area in the U.S. Outside the U.S., Modern's personal selling effort is coordinated by a joint effort between country-specific distributor organizations and Modern's international sales staff. Again, the company's focus is on the automotive industry. Modern was quite proud of the fact that every automotive stamping plant in the world had at least one large piece of Modern's equipment.

To facilitate and support the distribution system, Modern periodically held sales and service training seminars for its direct sales staff as well as for its distributor organizations. Also, Modern would regularly send its sales and service management personnel to work with the salesforce and distributor organizations, helping them overcome sales challenges, identify new sales opportunities, and facilitate solving customer service problems.

MARKETING COMMUNICATION

Given the high and negotiated price of the product, the long buying cycle, and the need to customize the product to customers' needs, personal selling is considered very important by Modern's management.

The sales staff concentrates its efforts on calling on the major purchasing influences, from production personnel to engineering to purchasing to top management. Most of the personal selling effort is directed at the geographic area of machine tool concentration.

A typical salesperson was experienced in the capital equipment industry and most often had a background in manufacturing or engineering. The industry relied heavily on this technical background rather than any special training in selling. Since the names and locations of every potential customer were known (through history and industry data sources), the personal sales staff rarely made "cold calls." The emphasis is on establishing a relationship of trust and confidence, which leads to becoming a supplier that would be allowed to submit a quotation on new equipment. The sales staff placed high value on knowledge of the industry, new manufacturing trends, and building a relationship on service.

Several years ago, Modern hired Caldwell & Associates, a sales consulting company, to conduct an evaluation of Modern's direct sales force. The Caldwell report confirmed that the sales staff was knowledgeable about the industry, professional, and highly skilled at identifying customer problems. However, the report also noted that the sales staff was on average 7 years older than that of the industry; had significantly less formal sales training; and was much more resistant to change.

EXHIBITIONS

Although product innovations are typically slow to develop in this industry, exhibitions of equipment were considered a very important vehicle for bringing buyers and sellers together. On a worldwide scale, there are dozens of exhibitions of machine tools each year. The focus might be regional, country, or worldwide in scope, and the purpose is always the same—to provide an opportunity for buyers to see a large number of manufacturers at the same time; to compare machinery; and to discuss new developments in the industry. For machine tool marketers, exhibitions provided an opportunity to introduce their equipment to new prospects and to talk with current customers about future projects.

Exhibitions are expensive because they require shipping equipment; creating a display environment; and paying for the travel and entertainment expenses of the personal sales staff. However, every major machine tool manufacturer participates in at least four exhibitions each year. A typical exhibition participation for Modern includes a display of one or two pieces of equipment; attendance by five or six members of the direct sales force; distribution of product literature and catalogs; an inquiry-solicitation device, i.e., customer/prospect response cards; and sponsorship of a dinner for key customers.

PRODUCT LITERATURE

Even though the majority of machine tools are built to customer specifications, product literature was considered quite important. Available in both printed and electronic formats (CD-ROM), product literature described the company's capabilities in engineering, manufacturing, installation, and service. The literature also featured case histories that explained and illustrated the use of Modern's equipment at specific companies. These case histories were useful because they provided third-party endorsements of the value of purchasing Modern equipment.

Product literature also provided a mechanism through which Modern could maintain steady communications with customers and prospects. The company's mailing list of over 5000 names was sent product literature once every three months. Modern has also recently established a Home Page on the Internet to communicate with current and potential customers.

ADVERTISING

Modern has a history of allocating a comparatively large percentage of its total sales to media advertising. While studies have shown that industrial firms allocate about 30 percent of their promotion budgets to advertising in business publications, Modern consistently invested 50-60 percent of its budget in the business press. The major reason for this is that Modern's management recognizes the wide range of buying influences on the purchase of machine tools and feels that a large percentage of these influences can be reached efficiently through print advertising. Furthermore, Modern felt that advertising consistently in the most prestigious publications in the business press helped maintain the company's strong positive image.

MARKETING COMMUNICATIONS MESSAGE THEMES

Although the company's direct mail and advertising messages were designed to address the local culture, the overall theme of all Modern's marketing communications stressed a prestige image, worldwide capability, and pioneering research and development. The objectives of advertising to the domestic metalworking target were to maintain a favorable company image; to inform customers and prospects of new product developments; and to generate sales leads for the personal sales staff. Sales leads were processed (any requested product literature mailed) by the company's marketing communications staff and then forwarded to the appropriate office of the direct sales staff or distributor organization.

Because direct mailings to markets outside the U.S. were often difficult to control, Modern relied primarily on advertising in trade publications to reach the international metalworking target. The company used publications whose circulation excludes the U.S. and those that concentrate on one country or one geographic area, i.e., Latin America, Far East, and Europe. Modern's advertising messages in international media have been "top management" oriented, emphasizing the company's worldwide reputation and the satisfaction of buying machinery from Modern.

As the plasticforming market developed, Modern used exhibitions, direct mail, and advertising to stress its early research and development in plasticforming and its abilities to build equipment for virtually any production application.

FINANCIAL ANALYSIS

To help Tom prepare his Marketing Plan, he requested a summary of Modern's operating performance for fiscal year 1995 as well as for the previous five years. These data are contained in Table 9. Before he could develop the pro forma financial statements for next year's Marketing Plan, he needed to examine last year's performance. Was it satisfactory? Did unit and dollar sales volume meet expectations? Were contribution margins acceptable? What were the expense factors that negatively or positively impacted on the achieved contribution margin? Did service, manufacturing, and marketing costs exceed projected sales-to-expense ratios? How were profits impacted? Were return on sales acceptable? These were the questions that occurred to Tom as he began to analyze last year's financial results.

MARKETING CONTROLS

In addition to Objectives, Tom Bonner must also submit a set of marketing control measures to evaluate the company's progress within his new marketing plan. These standards and diagnostic measures would monitor Modern's performance. Tom is considering a variety of weekly, monthly, and quarterly reports to track sales volume in units and dollars and market share across target markets. These reports— along with financial standards such as contribution margins, sales-to-expense ratios, profitability, and ROI—must be broken out by product and market unit of analyses. Product quality reports and consumer surveys also need to be undertaken on a timely basis.

The person responsible for marketing must submit to the executive committee a set of marketing control measures to evaluate the company's trajectory vis-à-vis the marketing plan. Tom Bonner must develop from the previously-formulated objectives a set of standards and diagnostic measures to monitor Modern's performance. For example, the survey data contained in Table 10 suggests that while Modern's product quality was good, customer service problems resulted in buyer attitudes being negatively impacted. Only 44% of customers surveyed viewed the company as the industry leader on its highly promoted customer service. In fact, among certain target markets the company was found to have a rather weak, undeveloped corporate image.

These reports must not only be prepared in a concise orderly manner, but must be made available to the appropriate individuals in a way that will lead to efficient diagnoses and effective corrective actions. Modern has a computerized information system that is network based, with line decision makers being supported by a group of professional, technical information specialists and market researchers.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

CURRENT SITUATION

Until 1945 Modern controlled 50—75% of the worldwide metalforming press market. Its sales and engineering staffs worked closely with the major automobile manufacturers to help develop many of the mass-production systems still in use today. However, the marketplace changed. Several firms—both U.S. and non-U.S.—have been producing high-quality metalforming and plasticforming presses for years. In addition to this increasing competition on the product level, Modern discovered that its customers were less willing to pay a premium for Modern equipment. So, in recent years Modern has had difficulty maintaining even 15 percent of the market. Between 1965 and 1995 Modern's share has dropped from

45% to 15%. See Table 3. Their two major U.S. competitors, Formco and Johnson, successfully challenged Modern's position as the industry leader, and several years ago these two companies surpassed Modern's sales.

Modern's management realized that many of the factors that contributed to their loss of share were beyond their control. Certainly, Modern could have done nothing about declining economic conditions and the weak automotive market. Also, there seemed little they could have done about competitors outside the U.S. Machine tool production technology reached the mature stage long ago and the technological advantages once held almost exclusively by Modern were now widely available to all competitors.

In developing their marketing strategy for the future, Modern's management made several key assumptions:

1. They would continue to strive for engineering superiority. Although production technology was no longer a differential advantage for Modern, they still had an outstanding reputation for engineering design and problem solving.
2. They would continue to price their equipment above that of competitors. First, Modern believed that the slightly higher prices were justified because of superiority of design, and second, they believed that there would be minimal customer resistance because of the perceived value.
3. Finally, Modern decided to maintain its high profile in advertising. The company seemed committed to outspend competitors in advertising, in product literature, and in exhibitions.

BONNER'S RESPONSE TO MCALLEY

After reviewing the situation and studying a number of factors that have impacted Modern's past and are likely to impact its future, Tom Bonner sent a memo to Alice McCalley, telling her that he would send her a complete marketing plan within a week.

TABLE 1
WORLDWIDE SHIPMENTS OF MACHINE TOOLS: 1965—1995

Year	Value of Machine Tool Shipments ($US Millions)	Index	Value of Presses ($US Millions)
1965	1426	100	187
1970	1443	101	189
1975	2452	172	322
1980	2452	172	615
1985	2545	178	333
1990	3330	234	329
1995	4863	341	638

TABLE 2
WORLDWIDE SHIPMENTS OF MACHINE TOOLS (METAL CUTTING AND METAL FORMING): 1965—1995

Year	Metal Cutting Tools ($US Millions)	Metal Forming Tools ($US Millions)	Total ($US Millions)	% Change from Prior Period
1965	1251	441	1692	--
1970	651	651	912	-46.1
1975	916	270	1186	30.0
1980	3885	777	4662	293.1
1985	1853	675	2568	-44.9
1990	2070	894	2965	-15.5
1995	3191	1672	4863	43.6

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TABLE 3
MARKET SHARES AND SALES OF LEADING PRESS BUILDERS: 1965—1995

Sales and Market Shares	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995
Total Value of Presses ($US Millions)	187	189	322	615	333	329	638
Modern Sales	84	76	113	172	73	59	96
Modern Share	45%	40%	35%	28%	22%	18%	15%
Formco Sales	37	42	81	160	87	95	191
Formco Share	20%	22%	25%	26%	26%	29%	30%
Johnson Sales	28	30	61	123	67	70	147
Johnson Share	15%	16%	19%	20%	20%	21%	23%
Sales of Other Domestic Companies	9	8	6	25	20	7	13
Shares of Other Domestic Companies	5%	4%	2%	4%	6%	2%	2%
Sales of Other Intl. Companies	26	34	61	135	87	99	191
Shares of Other Intl. Companies	14%	18%	19%	22%	26%	30%	30%

TABLE 4
CONSUMPTION OF MACHINE TOOLS BY SIC CATEGORY

Standard Industrial Classification (SIC)	Category Description	% of Total Machine Tools in Use
34	Machinery, except electrical	31.8
35	Fabricated metal products	23.9
36	Electrical machinery	13.9
37	Transportation	12.7
19/25/33/38/39	All others	18.6

TABLE 5
MODERN MACHINERY SALES BY MARKET: 1965—1995
(EXPRESSED AS $ OF MODERN'S SALES)

Market	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995
Automotive	40%	47%	40%	35%	37%	40%	45%
Automotive Parts	22	24	19	19	20	22	24
Appliance	15	12	17	20	20	19	15
Aircraft	7	6	9	4	8	7	6
Electronics	6	3	9	10	9	8	5
Furniture	4	7	5	5	4	3	3
All Others	6	11	1	4	2	1	2

TABLE 6
DISTRIBUTION OF MACHINE TOOLS IN U.S. METALWORKING INDUSTRIES

Rank	U.S. Market	Number of Machine Tools in Use	% of Total Machine Tools in Use
1	Chicago	295,233	11.3
2	Los Angeles	227,195	8.9

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3	Atlanta	185,362	7.1
4	Philadelphia	178,049	6.8
5	Boston	128,213	4.9
Total		1,014,052	39.0

TABLE 7
THE BUYING INFLUENCES ON THE PURCHASE OF MACHINE TOOLS: U.S. PLANTS OF 20-99 EMPLOYEES AND IN PLANS OF >100 EMPLOYEES

Buying Process Phase	Administrative Function		Production Function		Engineering Function		Purchasing Function	
	20-99	>100	20-99	>100	20-99	>100	20-99	>100
Initiating Process	33%		48%		11%		8%	
Determining type of equipment	36		44		13		7	
Creating specifications	30		48		15		7	
Determining expenditure	47		40		6		7	
Selecting suppliers	41		40		10		9	
Final authority to buy	49		33		9		9	

TABLE 8
RANKING OF IMPORTANCE OF FACTORS IN SELECTING A MACHINE TOOL SUPPLIER (1=MOST IMPORTANT; 7=LEAST IMPORTANT)

Factor	Rating in U.S. Market	Rating in European Market
Product Quality	1	1
Price	2	3
Customer Service	3	4
Technical Service	4	2
Sales Force Effectiveness	5	6
Overall Image	6	5
Marketing Communications Programs	7	7

TABLE 9
MODERN MACHINERY 6-YEAR FINANCIAL SUMMARY: $US MILLIONS

Sales Revenue	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Product Sales	59.0	57.0	55.0	84.0	93.0	96.0
Service Sales	15.0	13.5	12.5	21.0	22.5	22.7
Fin. & Other Income	1.0	0.5	1.5	2.0	2.5	3.3
Costs						
Cost of Goods Sold	44.0	42.0	40.5	62.0	69.0	71.0
Cost of Services Sold	9.0	8.0	7.5	13.0	14.0	14.0
Gross Profit	22.0	21.0	20.0	32.0	35.0	37.0
Expenses						
Res. &	2.0	2.0	1.5	1.0	2.5	3.0

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Development						
Marketing						
Selling	6.0	5.0	4.5	5.0	6.0	7.0
Advertising	1.0	0.5	0.3	1.0	2.0	2.3
Sales Promotion	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.5	1.0	1.3
Customer Service	0.5	0.3	0.2	1.5	1.8	1.8
Inventory	1.5	2.0	1.3	2.0	1.5	2.5
Freight	2.5	2.0	1.8	3.0	3.3	3.5
Depreciation	3.5	3.0	2.8	3.0	3.0	2.5
General Administrative	11.5	11.0	11.5	14.0	12.0	11.0
Taxes	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.5
Profits after Taxes	-7.0	-5.0	-1.0	1.0	1.5	1.8
ROI	-37%	-28%	-6%	0	5%	6%
Return on Sales	-9%	-7%	-1%	1.4%	0.9%	1.4%
Market Share	18%	18%	17%	17%	16%	15%
Units Sold	120	116	114	161	182	193

TABLE 10
RESULTS OF CUSTOMER ATTITUDE SURVEYS: 1994-1995 (EXPRESSES IN % OF RESPONDENTS SELECTING ATTRIBUTE AS "FAVORABLE")

Attribute	Modern		Formco		Johnson		European Co.		Asian Co.	
	1994	1995	1994	1995	1994	1995	1994	1995	1994	1995
Overall Image	60%	59%	63%	64%	59%	61%	68%	69%	66%	67%
Product Quality	75	74	73	73	70	70	77	78	76	77
Price	50	48	65	67	60	63	59	60	60	60
Customer Service	43	44	59	61	58	60	63	64	64	66
Technical Service	68	67	65	66	61	62	68	69	66	67
Sales Force	54	52	60	62	57	58	64	65	64	64
Mktg. Comm.	54	54	59	60	56	56	63	63	62	61

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GOING STRATEGIC - HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL TRANSFORMATION IN A TAIWANESE COMPANY[1]

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Abstract

The case describes Eva Chen's first year as a senior human resource manager in a medium-sized diversified listed company in Taiwan. Eva tries to position the HR department as a strategic partner with top management. Eva develops many new HR systems, but these were not always enthusiastically received. In addition, HR department members were not very happy because they were working such long hours and under great pressure. At the end of the case, Eva ponders what she should do next. She is concerned whether she is doing the best thing for the organization, her own HR staff, and herself.

What to do? Eva Chen had been in the human resources position at YUAN Group for about a year now. She was so optimistic when she began. Mr. John Pan, the YUAN Group chief executive officer, had brought her from an administrative position in one of the group companies to become not only head of human resources but at the senior management level (while her predecessor was only a department head). Eva's hard work and good ideas had impressed Mr. Pan, and when Eva assumed the new position, both were optimistic that Eva would be able to do good things for the company. Now Eva wasn't so sure.

YUAN GROUP

The YUAN Group was founded fifty years ago. It had its beginnings in a single industry, and over time, it expanded to include other industries. More recently, YUAN established several charitable foundations in order to share their profits with the society. YUAN was considered a medium-sized company in Taiwan. It espoused "people-based" operations principles and had a stated goal to "share with society" and "improve quality of life."

Although it began as a family business, YUAN Group was not run as a family business. Most executives were professional managers, and the company was listed on the Taiwan Stock Exchange. Mr. Pan was the only one of his family members still involved with the business. He previously studied philosophy as well as business so there was a strong Chinese cultural influence in management.

This was seen in the way that the CEO treated all his employees. Mr. Pan felt it was his responsibility to take care of all aspects of their lives - his employees' work, families, health, leisure activities, etc.

Especially for upper level managers, he always played the role of their father. He always inquired about their parents, wives, and children, and he was very concerned about the physical health of the managers themselves. Mr. Pan regularly encouraged his managers to exercise, and one year even gave each upper level manager an expensive sports-related gift.

Mr. Pan not only expressed concern for his employees but actively participated in their lives. For example, he often invited his managers to join him for some recreational activities. If a family member of an upper level manager became seriously ill, the CEO would take the head of HR and visit the patient at home or in the hospital. When there was a funeral or wedding in a manager's family, the CEO would always attend, regardless of how far he had to travel to get there. Mr. Pan had been known to travel for several hours to be present at a manager's family ceremony to express his regards. He believed that his attendance was very significant to his employees. When non-management employees had similar family events, Mr. Pan asked one of his managers to represent him at the ceremony.

Acting in the capacity of "father" of the company, Mr. Pan cared for his employees very much. On the other hand, he had very high expectations of them and felt free to express his feelings openly, just as a father would with his own children. If employees could not meet his expectations, he coached them using direct language.

EVA CHEN

When Eva took over the new position in HR, her concerns were far reaching. The previous HR head was given responsibility for two or three companies, but Eva was asked to look after eleven. She was able to increase her staff from six to ten people, but compared to before, the department's workload was proportionately much heavier. And, Eva had so many things she wanted to accomplish.

Eva had eight years of line management experience with profit responsibility before she started her current job. Her previous work included customer support, project management, and administration. Eva was stimulated by world-class competition and the pursuit of excellence.

In facing her new job, Eva's first concern was with overall competitiveness. From her past experience, Eva realized that global competition was increasing everywhere and in every industry. If YUAN was not competitive, they could not grow. Eva knew this was essential to protect the shareholders' profits, and she felt it was the responsibility of the HR Department to spearhead the change that was necessary to assure that YUAN did grow.

Since over 50 percent of the YUAN group's revenues came from the domestic market, Eva did not think that the other senior managers had a sense of the global nature of their business. Most managers tended to focus on the local situation and to continue to do things in ways that were successful in the past. Eva worried that they were not aggressive enough to face the new challenges ahead.

Eva's ideas about business and human resource management came from her course work at both the bachelor's and MBA levels. She also was exposed to many global business practices when she worked previously for a multi-national high-tech company. There the philosophy was that 80 percent of the HR role (recruiting, performance evaluation, etc.) should be handled by line managers and only 20 percent by the HR department. Most of all, Eva believed that the HR department had to be strategic, not only taking care of personnel functions, but also critically involved in important corporate decision making.

THE MONTHLY COMPANY MEETING REPLACES THE ANNUAL COMPANY OUTING

One of the first issues Eva faced when she started her new job was the cancellation of the annual company outing in one of the group companies. Normally, employees traveled for one or two nights to an interesting place at company expense. (Family members could also join at a subsidized rate.) The trip was held on workdays so an additional benefit was some extra time off with pay. This was a popular benefit in Taiwan generally, and YUAN Group employees had been enjoying the trip for some time. However, because of a recession, the company had to cancel the trip leading to low morale.

So, Eva needed to find some way to motivate the employees. What she developed, along with her staff, was an informal monthly company meeting. Employees and managers met in kind of a celebration; new employees were introduced, awards given, company news shared, and employees could ask the management questions.

EMPLOYEE SURVEYS

In order to study employee attitudes about organizational culture, management systems, and morale, Eva had a graduate student from a local university help her department develop an employee survey so that she could get further information. Eva explained the philosophy behind the survey: "Most traditional pyramid organizations are command-control organizations where many people are busy 'fire fighting.' And, each employee can contribute little innovation because he is not empowered. And the customer is dissatisfied.

"So, we try to make a reverse triangle for the organization. And the customer is on the top....We try to put the customer up front, then, the first line employees, all the middle managers, and at the bottom will be the CEO.

"So the whole philosophy is to satisfy our customers first. Then, our employees will be satisfied, and our CEO and shareholders will be satisfied. The sequence can not go wrong."

The HR Department sent out 700 employee attitude surveys, and over 500 were returned. From these, the HR department identified areas of dissatisfaction and developed an action plan to try to make improvements. The action plan called for many changes. The HR department would do a salary survey to compare YUAN salaries with those of competitors, and changes would be made in the performance evaluation and bonus sharing systems, in the way promotion decisions were made, and in the attendance system. The trip would be reconsidered, and a cafeteria benefits plan would be developed.

Within one year, some of these items had already been implemented. After the results of the salary survey were known, the base pay of sales representatives was increased to make their salaries more competitive. The performance evaluation system was changed so that scores were more normally distributed, and a new computerized attendance system allowed employees to fill in leave requests on-line. The HR department also reviewed the cafeteria benefits approach used at a foreign high-tech firm and started working on one that would help YUAN Group employees meet varying needs. There were also plans to administer the employee survey on a bi-annual basis.

THE NEW PERFORMANCE EVALUATION SYSTEM

One action that had been completed as a result of the survey was the introduction of a new performance evaluation system. Eva explained how the monthly meetings were used to help employees understand about the new performance evaluation system and why the system was changed. She commented that when she first took the job over 90 percent of employees had performance scores over 85. However, the ratings on the customer satisfaction survey[2] were not as high.

Eva was concerned that there was a gap between the two figures, "So, I said maybe we are too gentle to ourselves. We are not so strict, and if we continue being so gentle to our employees and to ourselves then we will become mediocre. We don't have muscle. Okay? So, we need to keep lean and competitive, and the only alternative is to be very strict and change the mediocre standard to excellent."

In the new system, the performance evaluation scores were more normally distributed within one company. As Eva explained, "The distribution is skewed to the positive side but more normal than before. I don't force a normal distribution: 80 - 85 is average performance, normal. You can not put everyone over 90. The World Trade Organization will bring in global competitors. Customers are more demanding, and we need to be more competitive."

In the old performance evaluation system, managers could give up to 100 points on job related items. It was all free form. There were no common items or core values across companies. As Eva commented, "With such a diversified group, 11 companies, corporate culture and core values are essential. We are talking about different languages among different industries. We need a common way of communicating to facilitate consensus and teamwork."

In the new system for leaders, defined as those with subordinates, 50 percent of the evaluation was based on task and project results, and the other 50 percent was based on ability to implement core corporate values. The values that were scored included

1. customer satisfaction
2. leadership
3. teamwork
4. people development
5. execution
6. productivity
7. creativity and innovation
8. internal control.

According to Eva, "If a leader *just* completes all the projects on time and within budget and acceptable quality, the leader might just get 60. If he can implement the company values and the shared values among his group and demonstrate the values in his daily behavior, he can get maybe 90 percent. That is the major difference; we added the values part and the focus on MBO (Management by Objective)."

Another aspect of the new system was for each employee to form a development plan. The supervisor was to write these up with the employees' agreement, including a clear time frame for when each action plan would be accomplished. In practice, Eva found that instead of their supervisors doing it, some employees were writing their own development plans and also that some of the objectives were very general. Eva was concerned about this part of the plan succeeding.

"People may not be serious about implementation. It is mandatory to check this since this is the first time. The problem is always with implementation. Most managers don't think people management is their responsibility. They think, 'If they [the employees] lack skills, send them to the training center.'"

THE NEW BONUS SHARING SYSTEM[3]

Another system that was changed as a result of the employee attitude survey was the bonus sharing system. In the past, the amount of bonus was just announced. Employees had no idea (officially) how the amount compared to competitors. So, now with the monthly meetings, the HR department had the opportunity to explain.

Based on the benchmarking survey done by the HR department (explained below), Eva was able to show the employees how much bonus they were receiving relative to other companies in the same industry. According to her information, the YUAN Group employee bonus was around the same level as most of the competitors'. In the meeting, the HR department also announced company revenues and profits which affected the amount of bonus.

Under the new system the amount of bonus each person got was also tied to his or her performance evaluation. In one of the monthly meetings, the HR Department showed how performance evaluation ratings would be tied to the amount of bonus. As Eva explained, "We put that on a transparency and showed everybody. We make it very transparent. We want to make it so everybody knows there is no black box. Everybody knows the rules of the game and trusts the fairness of the system."

THE BENCHMARKING STUDY

Another major project that Eva had initiated was a benchmarking study. Members of the HR department visited six companies, four competitors and the other two considered leaders in other industries. They collected data on a number of important company performance measures: productivity ratios; direct and indirect labor; recruiting, job rotation and training systems; benefits; and salary administration.

The information collected in the benchmarking study was useful in pointing out areas where YUAN could improve. As Eva noted, "We try to divert their [employees'] attention outside to watch the competitors. So, we said we are not the best. We should work harder."

Eva gave an interesting example: "Professionals in the competitor can rotate to departments like planning, service, sales, or auditing. Their career path is very wide. YUAN Group professionals are limited to technical jobs. They seldom have the chance to go to so many departments. So that's why after three to five years, they go to the competitors. We become a training school for the competitors. It's a pity!"

MANAGEMENT CAPABILITY DIAGNOSIS

Another project that the HR department did was a management capability diagnosis. A different university graduate student helped them to develop a questionnaire that was given to 66 managers within the group. The results of the diagnosis showed several common positive strengths. YUAN managers were hard working, diligent, punctual, honest, had integrity, and cared about profitability. The areas they needed to further develop were creativity, coaching and employee development, and written communication.

As a result of the diagnosis, the HR department put a lot of effort on planning and development for management, including training for top and middle managers. However, Mr. Pan didn't think that this was really necessary. He felt that the leadership style of an individual was innate. Therefore, he believed that not much could be done through training.

THE HR DEPARTMENT

Eva's view of HR was not the traditional one. She envisioned the HR Department's role as that of a change agent. In response to growing global competition, Eva planned for the department to carry out a five year organizational transformation to change corporate culture, organization structure, and basic HR systems and processes. Eva explained her vision, "My five year objective is to spend 50 percent of time on administration and 50 percent on strategy implementation. If we standardize routines, use computer, and have the right outsourcing partners, then we can spend more valuable time on organizational change management."

When Eva first became head of HR, she set up her own department so that this objective could be carried out. She called a vision sharing meeting of all the HR staff to develop the department mission and values. The members of the department defined their role as internal consultant to be carried out in three ways:

1. HR consultant, providing professional expertise to influence top management business decisions
2. Problem solver, acting as a project manager for change management
3. Strategic partner, working with top management.

The department also set up their annual plan by outlining objectives in four areas:

1. People development
2. HR systems standardization
3. Salary and benefits systems revision
4. Organizational culture change.

In each one of the four areas, Eva and her group had a long list of related tasks to accomplish (including many discussed previously).

They also defined the department's core values by discussing and voting on them:

1. Influential strategic partner
2. Creative and innovative
3. Enthusiastic, human, enjoyable working life.

THE HR STAFF

Eva worked closely with her staff and tried very hard to manage them in a professional manner. For example, Eva said, "I love to read management papers. I translate them into Chinese for the staff and then we discuss. We try to modify the ideas for local use."

With Eva's strong drive to move YUAN Group toward greater competitiveness, everyone, including Eva, agreed that the workload was very heavy, particularly compared to the time under the previous head. Eva's leadership style was also very different.

Previously, each staff members was encouraged to develop his or her own specialty, but now there was more of an MBO orientation. In the past, each person only worked in his or her own specialty area, but now there was a larger corporate vision and each person was expected to contribute to it.

Eva emphasized strategy. It was not enough to just be better than the HR departments of competitors; her department needed to relate HR to the organization's long term productivity, profits, and competitiveness.

Some staff in the department felt that under the previous HR head, everyone was happier and felt like they achieved more. Felix, their previous head, was more concerned with process and would follow up with staff more to see how things were going. Eva's concern was with results. Each month she would review the status of each project to make sure the staff were on schedule. If employees were not keeping up, it was very difficult to convince her that the goal should be changed.

Eva was very good at letting the HR staff know about other aspects of the organization, particularly financial. She also shared more information coming from top management whether it was good or bad. In the past Felix would try to keep any bad news from the staff.

One other major difference between Eva and Felix was Eva's persistence. In the past, if there was a problem and Felix and the department members could not find a solution, they would just drop the project. If Eva couldn't reach her goal, she would just keep trying. In fact, she had developed a reputation throughout the company for being very goal-oriented.

To be strategic, Eva thought they needed to standardize and simplify routine HR operations. Therefore, Eva was very concerned about documentation of results. Eva asked members of the HR department to write down everything they did, and even called meetings with people to review and standardize HR procedures.

Eva tried to implement ISO-9002 within the HR function to simplify administration and operation procedures. As a result of her convictions, the HR Department completed the standardization of seven major procedures within one year. These included interviewing and staffing, performance evaluation, payroll, annual bonus sharing, training, attendance recording, and insurance.

Because HR staff were now assigned to work by company, rather than by function, there was not as much overlap and need for interaction as before. Basically, each person did his or her own job without consulting the others very often. Since everyone's workload was so heavy, everyone was anxious to finish meetings as quickly as possible which further reduced their interaction time.

Staff in the HR department did work very hard and for very long hours, often till 8, 9 or 10 p.m. Of course, Eva did too. The staff recognized her professional approach and how hard she was working. They felt they were learning a lot that could advance their careers. But, the work load was too heavy, and with the short amount of time given to finish so many projects, there was always stress and pressure.

EVA'S EVALUATION

Now, after working in HR for about a year, Eva reflected on what she had accomplished. The department had completed many important projects, but there were still many essential projects that top management had not yet approved. The HR department was creative, and it was becoming an influential strategic partner, but the HR staff were not that happy because their workload was so heavy.

What should she do? Was she leading the department and the organization in the right way? Was she pushing her staff too hard? Should she continue to be persistent in doing what she thought was right?

TEACHING NOTES

CASE OVERVIEW

Eva Chen was selected by Mr. John Pan, CEO of the YUAN Group, to become part of the senior management team, responsible for human resources. Based on Eva's previous success working in the YUAN Group, both she and Mr. Pan were optimistic that she could accomplish a lot for the company. The case describes Eva's first year in the new position and the many projects she initiated and completed.

One of Eva's major concerns was to position the HR department as a strategic partner with top management. Her five year goal was to spend 50 percent of the HR department time on administration and 50 percent on strategy implementation. The department itself was significantly revised in order to meet this objective.

The case describes the development of many new HR systems, such as salary survey, performance evaluation, bonus sharing, attendance, and benefits. These changes were accomplished with the hard work of Eva and the HR department staff, but were not always received enthusiastically by the top management team and other employees. In addition, members of the HR department were not very happy because they were working such long hours and under great pressure.

At the end of the case, Eva ponders what she should do next. She is concerned whether she is doing the best thing for the organization, her own HR staff, and herself.

OBJECTIVE

The teaching objective of the case is to illustrate the effects of trying to rapidly implement large numbers of major HR system changes in a traditional organization. Many of the changes that have been made and that have been proposed are those that "state of the art" human resource management theory would endorse. However, the suitability of such approaches in a traditional conservative Chinese organization in Taiwan seems to be a major concern.

INTENDED COURSES AND AUDIENCE

The case would be appropriate for undergraduate or graduate classes in Human Resource Management, International Human Resource Management, Management, International Management, Organizational Behavior, International Organizational Behavior, Asian Business or Management, or International Business.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS AND ANALYSIS

1. How would you evaluate Eva's stated five year objective to make the HR Department spend 50 percent of the time on administration and 50 percent on strategy formulation and implementation?
   Eva's objective to make the department more strategic is a good one. However, given the nature of the company, the previous HR head's approach to managing the HR department, and the complexity of gaining consensus from a management team representing 11 diverse companies, it seems to be too ambitious.
   Previously, the HR department's function was purely administrative. If Eva wants to change that, she should move slowly and cautiously and try to get the approval of Mr. Pan and the understanding and support of the HR Department members. It is possible that over time, Eva will be able to achieve her objective but to try to do so immediately is unrealistic.
2. What is your opinion of the various new HR systems that Eva has developed and implemented?
   The new HR systems seem to follow established international HR practice. Some of these were appropriately modified to fit the Taiwan work environment. Overall, the introduction of so many changes within such a short time seems to be an instance of "too much, too fast." It is very difficult for people

anywhere to accept change and to have these constant changes within an organization that is generally characterized as more traditional and resistant to change is even more challenging.

At the time the case was written, Eva had only been in her position for about one year so the impact of changing so many systems was not clear. It seemed that both the CEO and the general managers were somewhat resistant. They did want to improve the company and make it more competitive, but at the same time, they were not sure that these HR changes would really have any impact since they were not directly connected with the core business. In addition, Mr. Pan had expressed the view that the personalities of the leaders could not be changed, and therefore, management training and development could not really achieve much.

3. What actions did Eva take to make the introduction of change more acceptable to the YUAN Group management and employees? Could she have done anything further?

   Change theories advocate the use of participation, education and communication as among the best ways to overcome resistance to change. Eva also had the support of the CEO when she began. Eva's use of the various surveys was one good way of getting employee participation in making improvements. The monthly meetings also served as a forum to introduce and educate employees on the various new systems, and additional training programs, including videotapes were made available so that employees and managers could further understand how to implement the new systems. After the implementation of the changes, Eva also made provisions to get feedback from the employees.

   Eva did a pretty good job of trying to overcome resistance to change. However, since she realized that everyone was not happy with such a large number of rapid changes, she could have considered slowing down the rate of introduction to a level that was more acceptable both to her HR Department staff and the rest of the company.

4. What can Eva do to make other managers more aware of the growing global competition and to prepare them to face international competition in the domestic markets?

   From what we know about the company and other managers, this will not be easy. The benchmarking study that has provided information about competitors is a good start. Developing a performance appraisal system that rewards managers for taking this point of view also helps. Managers must see that becoming more responsive to global competition is critical. In order to get them to realize this, the message must be emphasized by Mr. Pan and reinforced through the reward systems.

5. How can Eva change the corporate culture from command-control to customer-driven?

   This is also not an easy objective. Eva has taken some steps in the right direction, but she must have the full support of Mr. Pan who must communicate that message in everything he does. Changing the culture of an organization takes time, and Eva must have patience if she is to succeed.

6. What should Eva do now? How should she answer the questions she is wondering about at the end of the case?

   Eva has positive objectives and plans for her department and the YUAN Group. Her biggest problem is that she is trying to accomplish too much too quickly and that she is fighting too hard against the prevailing climate. Eva should not give up her objectives and plans but rather develop a more realistic timeline and consider further modification of certain proposals to fit the existing corporate climate.

   Eva needs to maintain her identity as a strong leader and innovator but must take into consideration that her own HR staff is working too hard and that the organization as a whole must take some time to accept the many changes that have already been made.

EPILOGUE

Eva Chen became disillusioned with the feedback she was getting from the management team and others in the company. Given her lofty objectives, she felt that she had failed in not being able to accomplish everything as quickly as she wanted.

Eva was also disappointed that some of her peers did not share the same vision as she did to become a world-class leader. Since she was not in a line position, she felt that she would be too tired and ineffective to fight for the organizational transformation by herself. Also, she knew that her own HR staff was not very happy. At least two of them were planning to leave, one for further study and the other to join her husband in another part of Taiwan. So, this also discouraged her.

Shortly after this case was written, Eva left the YUAN Group and planned to make a major career change.

ENDNOTES

1. ©1998 Ann Marie Francesco and Chang-I Bonnie Chen. The names of the individuals and the company in this case have been changed at their request. All events described are factual. The authors would like to acknowledge the international Research and Studies program on the international Education and Graduate Programs Service, U.S. Department of Education for providing funding for this research.

2. A survey of 200 customers was conducted by an outside marketing company.

3. In Taiwan, employees in the commercial sector generally receive a yearly bonus at the Lunar New year. The bonus amount given is usually a minimum of one month's pay but can be many times higher than that is company profits are high.

OPEN CASES AS SUBJECT INTEGRATOR

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Abstract

The paper describes the use of one of the types of case studies, with the work-name "open." This type comes from a case study, which describes a real situation and also the regarding problem(s), and students are searching for its solution. The openness is understood not only in the relation to different options of solution, but first of all to the "openness" of the description of the situation and the problem - both of them are not defined explicitly. Students themselves are narrowing the definition by electing several premises (e.g. they estimate market demand for newly introduced products, choose the way of financing a new investments, select the attitude of the decision-maker to risk etc.). Herewith students have to use their knowledge acquired in different subjects from the one the case is presented. Thus the case can play the role of an integrator of particular subjects. The paper shows the principle of open case studies on an example of case focused on decision-making under risk concerning the selection of a type, capacity, and location of a production unit.

INTRODUCTION

A typical feature of case studies is their openness regarding their solutions. Especially for the case studies used in the teaching of Management it is typical that they do not have only one correct solution. The variety of possible solutions depends upon the type of the used case study. Minimum variety is reached in the cases which describe the situation in detail, define the problem and also state the measures, which a firm have taken to solve the problem. Students then analyze, whether the problem has been defined correctly, how suitable was its solution, and whether there are some other possibilities to solve the problem. More demanding from students are the case studies, which describe a situation, define problems and the students themselves have to look for their solutions. These case studies force students to become more creative, and also the number of possible solutions is usually higher. The most difficult and variable are the case studies, which only describe a situation, and students themselves have to define the problems and their possible solutions.

Generally agreed principle is that the case study should include all the information students need to solve them; it is also possible to exclude the information students can find in the easily available information sources. We have tried to break this principle and not to describe the situation completely and definitely. This way the case study is not open only regarding the results (backwards), but also regarding the description of the situation (forwards). The work-name we used for this type of case study is "open case study." We will demonstrate its principles and experience acquired with it on the following example. It is a case study which in comparison with the three above-mentioned types has the following structure: partial description of a situation, definition of a problem, missing solution.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CASE STUDY "GIGAPRO: HOW AND WHERE TO PRODUCE"

The co-operative farm Zlinek, which is situated in East Bohemia, started to import a feeding complement for cattle from COLAC, Ltd. (Great Britain), in 1992. Thanks to its demonstrative economic and financial benefit, the product Energol was highly successful in a very short time of its use. In 1993 COLAC came up with an innovation. They introduced to the market an energetic-protein product GIGAPRO determined as a component to the feeding mixtures for milk cows. They started to import this product to the Czech Republic through Zlinek co-op. Shortly after the introduction of GIGAPRO on the Czech market, the demand for it started to grow rapidly. This led the management of Zlinek co-operative to consider the licensed production of this product in the Czech Republic.

The producer of GIGAPRO, COLAC, Ltd., is willing to sell the production license for this product. However, a very important rough material for the production is the fish flour. Import of this material to the Czech Republic will greatly raise the price of GIGAPRO. Therefore the management of the co-operative started negotiations with Moravian food-producing firm SITO, which is also engaged in plant-oil production. (Attestations of COLAC have proved that the fish flour can be replaced by rape distorts, while the quality of GIGAPRO is even higher.) He also proposed to the representatives of SITO, that the fabrication of GIGAPRO operation could be a joint investment of Zlinek co-op and SITO. COLAC, Ltd., have offered two types of production units different by their capacity - GP-2 and GP-4. For both types of units there were calculated the investment costs and the variable costs - see Table 1.

TABLE 1
STRUCTURE OF INVESTMENT AND VARIABLE COSTS FOR THE UNITS GP-2 AND GP-4

	Type of production line	
	GP - 2	GP - 4
Maximum production capacity (tons per year)	20 000	40 000
Investment costs (thous. CZK)	65 000	101 000
Unitary variable costs (thous. CZK per ton) including:	12.80	12.62
rape distracts costs	7.50	7.50
other material costs	3.40	3.40
labor costs	0.20	0.18
energy costs	0.25	0.23
other variable costs	1.45	1.31

Further negotiations have been focused on the place, where the production line should be built. As the final product consists of 80% of rape distracts, which are being produced by SITO, placing the production into the location of SITO (Olomouc) will be advantageous. The advantage of the production's location in the site of Zlinek is the lower price of land. Considering the situation in the local labor market, the labor costs in Zlinek location will be lower, as well.

Management of the co-operative asked the Department of Management and Marketing at the Faculty of Economics, Mendel University in Brno to prepare a market study, resulting in the estimation of the market demand for GIGAPRO by demand probability distribution curve.

Knowledge of this problem led the authors of this paper to prepare a case study, final result of which should be the recommendation, whether to realize this investment, and if yes in which locality and which type of production unit to use. This case study is used in the subject of Operations Management in the 4th year of study. Students solve it in written form in teams of 2 to 4 students, and after they finish it, it is corrected by their teacher and evaluated by points. At the seminar following after the evaluation, students briefly present their solution in oral form to their colleagues. The seminar groups have approximately 20 students so there is about 7 solutions presented at one seminar. The total contents of the case study is 4 pages, solution is prepared on 8 to 10 pages (excluding the appendixes) and is dependent on students' approach to the problem.

In the first two year of using this case study (1995-1996) it included all the information needed for its solution, especially:

- estimate of the market demand (result of the market study), represented by the distribution curve of demand probability - solution demanded use of the decision-making methods under the risk conditions;
- financial situation of both firms and its implications concerning the way of the investment financing by the external sources, including repayment of credit.

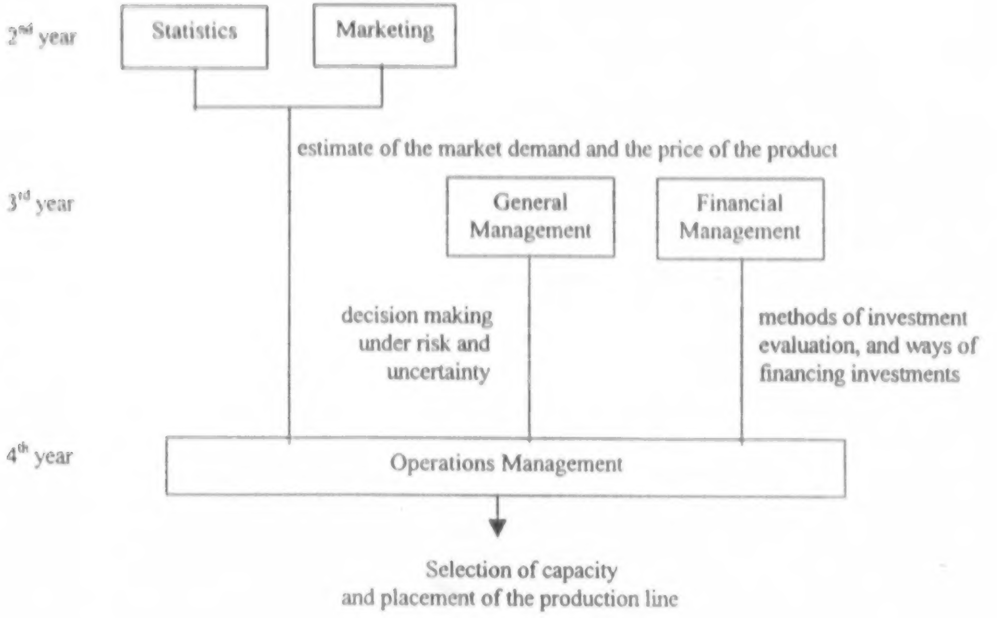
After evaluating the submitted solutions we found out that the suggested solutions do not differ very much. The teams were co-operating with each other, comparing the suggested solutions and also the methods used in it.

Therefore we excluded some information from the case study in 1997. With the knowledge of the contents of previously taught subjects we saw that students should be able to find the missing information by themselves. They should be able to:

- estimate the market demand if we provide them with the information about the milk consumption in the Czech Republic and its exports, about the milk production in CR, trends of the number of cows in CR and the development of their utility;
- consider the different financial situation of both firms and select a premise of the way of financing the investment by internal or external sources.

This way, the case study gained the character of subject integrator, where student solving it have to use the knowledge of subjects taught in previous year of study. Consequently, the demands on teachers of Operations Management have risen as well. They had to have not only the knowledge, expected from students, but also be acquainted in detail with the contents of the lectures and seminars of the subjects students needed to use their knowledge from. Links between the subjects used for analyzing the case study in the Operations Management are shown in the Picture 1.

PICTURE 1
CASE STUDY GIGAPRO AS SUBJECT INTEGRATOR


2nd year
Statistics
Marketing
estimate of the market demand and the price of the product
3rd year
General Management
Financial Management
decision making under risk and uncertainty
methods of investment evaluation, and ways of financing investments
4th year
Operations Management
Selection of capacity and placement of the production line

The variety of the suggested solutions have considerably increased after such an "open" description of the case study. Different were also the methods used in its solution. Clearly defined decision-problem under the risk conditions was solved with the assistance of decision tables or decision trees, calculation of a number of adjusted cash flow options, use of investment evaluation criteria (return on investment, internal rate of return), and even transfer of the situation into the conditions of certainty and calculation of the expected level of demand. Different were also the estimates and levels of the product price, where the only input information was the price of the imported product in 1993. In a number of solutions, there also occurred suggestions for increasing the market demand for the product supported by marketing activity of the producer. A meaningful role played the personal attitude of the decision-maker (or the decision-making team, in this case) to the entrepreneurial risk.

CONCLUSION

From the two-year use of such modified "open" case study we can come to the conclusion, that it improved the creative thinking of students. Use of an open case study has got the following advantages and disadvantages:

Advantages

- students themselves have to determine, which information is needed for the solution of the case study, then to look for it, calculate it or choose it as a presumption
- students have to use the knowledge acquired in different subjects
- case study has a large variety in the use of the methods of solution, and also in the results
- the competitiveness of the teams in finding different, also quite original solutions increases
- students find out, that even the theoretical knowledge previously considered as not very useful one is very important in solution of practical problems
- in the following oral presentations students get acquainted with different ways of solution, and also with a number of solutions valid under different presumptions and conditions.

Disadvantages

- high time-demands from students for solution of the case study
- high time-demands from teachers for correcting the written solutions
- case study may already not be in accordance with the real situation in a firm and in fact it becomes only a "quasi-study"
- students sometimes select unrealistic premises
- students sometimes mechanically use the method of solution they learned in a different subject without realizing that it is not suitable for this case or that it needs some modifications
- it is difficult to comprise all the possible solutions into the teaching notes.

BENTON HARBOR WORKFORCE SKILL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM: A CASE STUDY IN THE EFFICACY OF A COMMUNITY BASED ORGANIZATION

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Abstract

The Benton Harbor Workforce Skill Development Program is a collaborative effort between Benton Harbor Area Schools, City of Benton Harbor, Cornerstone Alliance, and Andrews University. The program goal is to address local workforce issues and needs identified by area employers and to place program graduates in jobs with a livable wage. The program has two major instructional components. The first is in job-specific applied skills and is accomplished through a self-paced, multi-media, interactive computer based program titled: Job Skill Education Program (JSEP). The second component is the Adkins Life Skills Program, designed to develop the work maturity and life-coping skills needed to maintain employment. Many of the clients are recent high-school graduates from at-risk environments who were unable to get jobs before participating in the program. The work retention in this program is about 80 percent and some clients have been employed for over one year.

INTRODUCTION

This is a case study of a collaborative effort between the Benton Harbor Area Schools, City of Benton Harbor, Cornerstone Alliance, and Andrews University in the development of the Benton Harbor Workforce Skill Development Program. The program is funded by a $461,000 grant from the Michigan Jobs Commission with matching contributions of about $200,000 and in-kind services from the City of Benton Harbor and Cornerstone Alliance. Andrews University provides the instructional/counseling staff.

The program goal is to address local workforce issues and needs identified by area employers and to place program graduates in jobs with a livable wage. The program targets Berrien County with an emphasis on the Benton Harbor area. This area has some of the highest per capita national rates related to crime, unemployment, unwed mothers, those on welfare, drug usage and a variety of other demographic indicators that would place almost all the youth in this program in an at-risk category.

The program has two major instructional components. The first is in job-specific applied skills and is accomplished through a self-paced, multimedia, interactive computer based program titled: Job Skill Education Program (JSEP). The second component is the Adkins Life Skills Program designed to develop work maturity and life-coping skills needed to maintain employment. This program uses materials developed by Adkins (1976), of Teachers College, Columbia University in combination with materials and exercises developed by the Center's instructional and counseling staff. Staff are trained over a period of three days in the Adkins Life Skills Program by carefully selected, experienced Life Skills Educators from the Institute for Life Coping Skills, located at Teachers College, Columbia University. Employers have committed jobs to those clients who successfully complete the program. Services provided participants in addition to instruction include: assessment, counseling (both career and personal), mentoring, resume writing, referral services, placement in full-time positions, 90-day follow-up, and continued educational opportunities.

As of October, 1997, 182 participants have completed the 1 2 week program with 132 placed in jobs that have an average wage of about $7.00 per hour with reasonable fringe benefits. The work retention is about 80 percent and some have now been employed for over one year. Many clients are recent high-school graduates from at-risk environments who were unable to get jobs before participating in the program.

LITERATURE REVIEW

At-risk people need help in sorting out and interpreting the life they are living. Decisions must be made on how schools and agencies are going to reach and teach those who are at-risk the competencies needed to improve their lifestyle, how they can help improve their neighborhoods, and how they can help bring about positive change in their community.

A number of researchers have commented on the culture of organizations. [Schein's. 1985] perspective on culture emanated from the belief that organizational cultures are created by leaders and one of the most decisive functions of leadership may well be the creation, the management, and if and when it may become necessary, the destruction of the culture. Culture and leadership, when examined closely, are found to be two sides of the same coin, and neither can be understood without the other.

Agencies, like schools and other organizations, are a cultural phenomenon. As is true of all social institutions, agencies have their own culture. In dynamic agencies, it appears that the culture permits staff to take an active, responsible role for the well-being of the whole agency as well as the clients [Taylor-Dunlop, 1997]. In this culture context, the Benton Harbor Workforce Skill Development Program strives for a caring and supportive growth environment for both participants and staff.

[Wehlage, 1983] asserted that five principles must guide state and district policy for traditional comprehensive high schools in order for them to become substantially more effective in diminishing their at-risk and dropout rates. This statement also has validity for agencies. These principles are:

1. the need to have good information about students.
2. the need to have good information about the effects of school policies and practices on at-risk students.
3. the recognition that personal and small environments are more likely to produce membership and educational engagement for at-risk students.
4. the recognition that more of the same kind of curriculum and teaching is not likely to succeed with at-risk students.
5. the need to have a mechanism that will hold institutions accountable for success with at-risk students.

An analysis of the program reveals that each of the five factors identified by Wehlage are included in one or more of the fourteen characteristics identified as essential to the program's success.

[Comer, 1988] studied poor minority children and postulated that all children can learn in a school that is designed for success. Success, he stated, depends on linking the home and the school experiences through a program built in the schools so that children do not have to choose between conflicting values. Children initiate the actions, attitudes, and values of adults with whom they form strong bonds. His model emanated from the belief that when communities define their own problems and succeed in creating viable solutions, empowerment also results.

The Benton Harbor Workforce Skill Development Center has taken to heart the concepts expressed by Comer but with an older age group. It was demonstrated that past poor school achievement, can be overcome given the right learning environment; thus, providing the basic education and attitudes needed to acquire and hold a meaningful job. Not only children, but youth and adults imitate the actions, attitudes, and values of adult with whom they form strong bonds. The Center has provided participants opportunities for role modeling and assistance in learning how to define their own problems in ways that help find creative and empowering solutions. The successful approaches used by the Center to help participants develop problem solving skills were in part based on materials developed by (Adkins, 1985].

The materials used by the center were developed by Dr. Winthrop Adkins (I 985) at Teachers College, Columbia University. Adkins is considered a pioneer in the field of career development. He developed, through a systems approach, a detailed assessment of psycho-social problems as they impact career choice and decision-making in at-risk populations. His research revealed that most non-traditional educational centers have several curricula tracks. Usually, these tracks include basic skills, some type of prevocational or vocational training, and GED preparation. Counseling is available but usually has been separated out instead of being an integral part of the program. Preventive counseling, such as helping students cope with the choices and decisions they must make as they complete their developmental tasks, has not been available, nor have counselors been trained effectively to do this. Consequently, one often hears the terms developmental and career guidance, only to discover it is a watered-down, paper- and-pencil, once -over-lightly session that is seldom remembered by the student [Taylor- Dunlop, 1997]. Adkins asserted that a fifth curriculum (Life Skills) was needed. He envisioned a curriculum that runs parallel with other programs such as reading and math and is life- problems centered. This curriculum deals with predictable developmental tasks, crises, and problems faced by students at different stages of their lives. These developmental problems are filled with emotion and therefore difficult to solve. This fifth curriculum has been incorporated into the Benton Harbor program and it is believed that this has been integral to the Center's success.

There are many ways to judge the success of such programs. Based on data, which is presented in later sections, it is clear that the program has been very successful. When a program is successful in helping individuals who are at risk obtain work, it is important to analyze the following questions:

1. Why was the program needed?
2. How is the program structured?
3. What are the results?
4. Why does the program work?
5. How could the program be made better?

THE NEED FOR THE BENTON HARBOR WORKFORCE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

The program is located in Benton Harbor, Michigan, which is a federally designated Weed & Seed area and is Michigan's only state-designated Enterprise Zone. Benton Harbor has the second highest poverty ranking in the state of Michigan. The average per capita income in Benton Harbor is $5,622 per year. The 1990 census reveals that 58% of the city's population is below the poverty level, and nearly 40% of households received some form of public assistance, which includes aid such as Food Stamps, AFDC, Medicaid, SSI and other entitlements. Specifically, the most recent figures from the Family Independence Agency (DDS), shows that 2,152 households receive ADC and 4,673 receive food stamps.

The Michigan Employment Security Commission's 1995 unemployment statistics reported an unemployment rate of 33%, when the program began in mid 1995.

The 1990 census shows that 58.5% of families with children under 18 live beneath the poverty level, ad three-quarters of single female headed households with children live in poverty. As a result, approximately 71 % of Benton Harbor's children live below the poverty level, and in the Benton Harbor Area Schools, 83.6% of the students receive free or reduced lunch. Things are not getting better, as is evidenced by statistics reported in the local newspaper. An Associated Press release from Lansing, Michigan (I 997), reported current rates of unemployment at 24%, families below the poverty level at 58%, families living on public assistance at 45%, students qualified for free and reduced price lunches at 90%, more than 400 students missing almost half of the first semester and large numbers of high school students dent back to school on electronic tether programs after being arrested because jails are full.

For the 1992-93 school year the graduation rate was only 40.57%. This is the lowest in the state for any system with a comprehensive high school. The 1996 dropout rate is 21.96%, again the highest in the state for any school system as large or larger than Benton Harbor. Steps are being taken to place the Benton Harbor school system under state control because of a pattern of low scores on the High School Proficiency Test. The large percent who fail to graduate (about 60%) and the number who graduate with weak academic skills cannot help but contribute to high unemployment rates, high crime rates, and high poverty rates.

Without question, the children, youth, and adults of Benton Harbor are in an at-risk community. Many youth and adults who wish to, have not been able to obtain employment because of marginal academic and life skills. The Benton Harbor Workforce Development Center is meeting the need of many who need to improve academic and life skills to a level that makes them employable.

AN OVERVIEW OF THE PROGRAM STRUCTURE

Program Support, a Collaborative Effort

The Benton Harbor Workforce Skill Development Program is a collaborative effort between Benton Harbor Area Schools, City of Benton Harbor, Cornerstone Alliance, and Andrews University which provides the instructional/counseling staff. The program was funded by a $461,000 grant from the Michigan Jobs commission with matching contributions of about $200,000 from the City of Benton Harbor and Cornerstone Alliance. The Center was charged with establishing a program to address local workforce development needs.

Program Goal

The goal of the consortium is to support the development of a strong economic development base in the Cornerstone Alliance service area and the Benton Harbor Enterprise Zone by providing a skilled workforce for existing and new businesses.

Program Participants

The program, founded in 1 995, originally targeted individuals residing in the Cornerstone Alliance service area, with special emphasis on the Benton harbor area. While the general target area includes all of Berrien County, the primary focus is on Benton Harbor. More than 90% of the participants are from Benton Harbor. The typical profile of the trainees includes, but is not limited to the following:

- Individuals who are underemployed or unemployed.
- Individuals aged 18 or over, with a history of failure in the traditional classroom setting and/or lack a high school diploma.
- Under-employed adults who want to upgrade their skills to enable them to move to higher paying positions.
- Individuals not eligible for other state or federally funded programs.

- Adults and out-of-school youths who have failed to meet entry-level job placement requirements.
- Recent high school graduates who are not going on to a two or four-year college.

Program Components

The program teaches fundamental job-related skills needed to enter and succeed in the workforce. The skills learned include basic technical skills, human relation skills, and life coping skills required to maintain employment. Clients are at the Center four hours a day; two of those hours are job skills training and the other two hours are Life Skills training.

The Job-Specific Applied Skills

A self-paced, multi-media, interactive computer based program titled: Job Skill Education Program (JSEP) is used. The JSEP component requires individuals to have at least a fifth-grade math and reading level. Each participant is required to complete a test of basic skills as related to the workplace before being placed into the job-specific component of the program. Those individuals not meeting the math and reading requirements are referred to supporting agencies who can better meet their needs. Once individuals attain the skills necessary to meet the requirements of the program, they can be referred back to the program.

The Life Skills Component

The Adkins Life Skills Program is competency based and designed to foster behavioral mastery and attitudinal change. The counseling goals are achieved by instructional means utilizing pre-developed learning programs and resources modified specifically for target groups. Specific training is provided for teachers and counselors in the use of the resources and related procedures. One of the key principles underlying the Life Skills approach is that it is an intervention designed to facilitate students' awareness of the major career development tasks they need to master, and to help them acquire the knowledge and behaviors needed to accomplish these tasks. The Life Skills methodology empowers students by helping them understand how to acquire membership (functional acceptance) in the group. The Life Skills workshops use selected materials developed by Adkins of Teachers College, Columbia University, selected concepts from training provided by the National Council of Black Mayors, in combination with materials and exercises developed by the Center's instructional and counseling staff.

The Life Skills component includes group participation along with individual counseling and mentoring. Some of the specific issues addressed include: time management, maintaining positive attitudes and beliefs, overcoming self-defeating behaviors, financial planning and management, communication skills, teamwork, conflict resolution, problem solving, denial of instant gratification, and interview techniques.

Development of a Work Ethic

In all the program activities there is a focus on helping participants develop a strong work ethic. In addition to many planned exercises in the formal curriculum, the program environment is used to help develop work ethics. The program is very structured and simulates the work environment. Participants are required to adhere to attendance policies and Center procedures which simulate those found in many workplaces. It is important for those in training to understand the program may not be for everyone. Commitment of participants to the work-like structure of the program helps insure commitment to their jobs.

The Center has developed a workplace simulation in conjunction with the Heath Corporation to help participants identified by Center staff as needing additional training in a work supervised environment. The facility provides a workplace setting where selected participants learn inventory control, inspection, and testing. The simulation provides the staff with the opportunity to observe students' behaviors.

Individualized coaching and feedback are used to help the students enhance and apply skills learned in JSEP and Life Skills.

Certification for Employment and Follow-Up

When a participant meets program requirements, he or she receives a certificate that indicates proficiency in the skills required for entry level positions with participating employers. When the trainees are placed with employers, the Center's staff routinely provides follow-up for the first 1 2 weeks and sometimes for as much as one year.

MEASURES OF SUCCESS, ECONOMIC AND WORK RESULTS

The original program graduated 182 individuals of whom 132 (73%) were placed. One hundred and sixteen (87.88%) are still working. Since the initial placements others have finished and have been placed. As of October ,1 997, there were 145 persons from the original and more recent groups who are working. The estimated economic impact of these 145 individuals is $7.00 of base salary and $2.00 per hour of fringe benefits totaling $9.00 per hour individual flowing into the community. On an annualized basis this means these 145 people bring $2,714,400 into the community. When considering the economic impact various multiplier factors are used depending on the circumstances. A conservative factor of 2 is used for this estimate which does not consider potential crime reduction effects. The estimated economic impact of these 145 individuals when a multiplier of 2 is used is $5,428,800 per year.

In mid 1995 the unemployment rate was 33% in Benton Harbor. The rate is now about 23%. The 145 individuals this program brought to an employment status theoretically accounted for about half of the 10% drop. Without question, for a community of this size the impact of the nearly 5% drop in unemployment that likely relates to this program is remarkable.

The total cost, including local support, is about $625,000. This means that the annual benefit flowing back to the community is approximately 8 times as much as the original investment with the cost benefits continuing. There were one-time start-up costs that will make the return on investment greater in the future, perhaps as much a 15:1. A comparable, but improved program for 200 participants could be accomplished without the start-up costs for $350,000 to $400,000 per year.

One function of the program, which was not initially anticipated, was the on-going support individuals seek by returning to the Center for assistance in problem-solving related to challenges they face at work or in their personal lives. This has in many instances resulted in their working through what they felt were issues of unfair treatment in ways that retained their positions and helped them view their work situation in more positive terms. Sometimes because of actions they took through coaching their work situations improved.

As the program hopefully continues this is a dimension that needs to, in at least a limited way, be funded on an on-going basis as a means of retaining work stability for this at-risk population who in the past were unable to get or hold meaningful employment on an on-going basis.

CASE STUDIES

In addition to the economic impact there are the human outcomes. Following are selected case studies that help put human meaning into the statistics. Each person represents joy, hurt, failure, and success. Fictitious names have been used to insure confidentiality.

Sally

When Sally came to the Center she had a measured reading grade level of 8.7 and a math level of 5.9. When she left, the reading level had increased to 10.9 and the math to 6.4. Sally graduated from high school in 1995 and was on public assistance. She had one child. At the time she began the program she was living with her mother. Sally completed a ten-week program and was then placed with a subsidiary of a major automotive company. She has now been there more than one year. She now has her own place, has purchased transportation, and is no longer on any form of assistance. Sally periodically returns to the Center to bring friends who she believes can benefit from the program. One of the most effective ways of finding people who can succeed with the help of the Program has been the referral of past graduates.

Mike

When Mike first came to the Center he had difficulty communicating, tended to look down, was withdrawn, and dressed in a way that would make it very unlikely that an employer would consider him. Ten weeks later he made a presentation at the graduation exercise where his enthusiasm and articulation excited those in attendance including individual from the State Employment Commission, the major, and major employers. He began working as a welder at a local technology-based industry. Through interactions with the Center, Mike became aware of an opportunity, which paid more and had better benefits. He interviewed and successfully obtained a job with this organization. However, this led to a different type of frustration. He thought initially that he would be a welder. When he was put into a simpler job involving sandblasting and not given opportunity, over time, to do welding, he became discouraged, questioned whether or not he might be discriminated against, and began a process of building hostility toward the job. Rather than expressing the hostility in ways that he might have in the past, which would in all likelihood have resulted in his being terminated, he came to the Center for coaching. The Center's staff helped him identify positive strategies for working through the situation and he is now successfully functioning as a welder. He has expressed appreciation on a number of occasions and seems to be happy in his current position, which is providing an on-going meaningful wage with benefits. The company where he now works has tuition reimbursement and Mike is currently taking advantage of this opportunity to further his skills. It appears that Mike is well on his way to establishing himself as a valued employee who is growing in technical understanding and skill. Mike has now been employed continuously for approximately one year.

Dick

Dick completed high school in 1989. He has been working for five years with temporary employment organizations but has been unable to find stable employment. When he came to the Center, his measured reading level was grade 9.4 and his math level was 7.7. By the time he left he scored at a grade level of 12.1 in reading and 11.2 in math. His family was on his case, expressing that he would never make anything of himself. While at the Center, he was punctual and worked extremely hard. Upon completing the program he was placed in a subsidiary of one of the major automotive companies. Initially, he had some interpersonal relation difficulties associated with work. However, he consistently checked back with the Center, received coaching, and worked his way through these problems. Since then, he has continued to advance to the point where now he has a more responsible position which includes having a car at his disposal, traveling to other sites, and receiving special training. He continually checks back with the Center, sometimes just to say "hello, I'm still here, I appreciate what you did."

Douglas

Douglas had been expelled from school for a weapons charge. With persistence was able to complete a GED (General Equivalency Diploma) but had been unable to obtain employment. When Douglas came to the Center his measured reading level was at grade 8.0 and his math at grade 7.7 When he left, his reading level was measured at grade 12.9 and the math at 11.6, a very acceptable level for employment in many more technical jobs. Douglas was a challenge, in part because of emotional problems that had not been resolved with his immediate family. The Center's staff helped him work through these types of problems and gain greater understanding of himself. As this occurred, his level of frustration and hostility reduced and he became a far more sociable person. By the time he left the Center he exhibited acceptable social behaviors that increased the likelihood that he could get a job and hold it. Douglas was placed in a subsidiary of the automotive industry which supplies parts to major manufacturers. He periodically worked with the Center when he felt the need and on one occasion as a result of information which came to the Center was asked to come in and talk with the Director. At this time there was discussion and it became apparent that there were some things that he felt were happening to him in his employment that needed improvement. Through interaction with the Center a plan was developed and the circumstances have been resolved so that Douglas is a stable employee. At this time has been employed for over one year. He periodically sends individuals to the Center whom he feels could benefit from a similar program and maintains on-going contact.

Ed

Ed is a talented person who was in college but lost his support because of a felony. As a result he came to the program for assistance and support. After the completion of the program he was placed in a position where he successfully worked for nine months. Since then he has received additional support and help needed to continue his education at a large Michigan university. There is an on-going dialogue between the Center and Ed's parents concerning progress and ways to provide mutual support and coaching. During the time that he was working prior to returning to college, he periodically checked back with the Center for support.

Robert

Robert is an African-American youth from Benton Harbor. He graduated from high school in 1995. Initial evaluation scores gave a reading level of grade 6.0 and a math level of 6.7. When he left the Center after approximately 12 weeks, his reading level measured at grade 8.0 and the math level was 8.4. Since leaving, Robert has worked continuously at three different locations. In the first location he was laid off and at that time returned to the Center for help. He was placed at a second location where he worked for four months. There were circumstances surrounding decision-making and taking responsibility that he may not have been totally ready for. Consequently, there was an agreed upon separation and he was placed at a third location where he has now worked for over one year. Robert's income has steadily increased to where he is now making more than $8.00 an hour with a complete package of fringe benefits. Robert moved out of his mother's house when he took his third job and has developed greater degrees of responsibility. However, because of the economic benefit he has recently moved back with his mother. He has long-term potential and is maturing, but still returns to the Center on his own for advice, support, and coaching. There is a continuing need to provide youth like Robert with ongoing coaching as they are maturing and becoming more stable contributing citizens to the community.

Crime Prevention

There is a dimension to the Center on which it is difficult to place a price tag. there are a number of individuals who if they did not receive the type of help provided by the Center, would likely over time become involved with the criminal justice system. For such individuals, rather than bring a positive cash flow into the community the result is a negative cash flow to the state approaching $40,000 to $50,000 per year. The proverb, "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure," aptly fits with many of the maturing individuals who have received help and continue to receive coaching through the Center.

WHY THE PROGRAM SUCCEEDS

Saying why something worked is tantamount to describing a cause/effect relationship. This is the most difficult type of relationship to establish by research. Unfortunately, sometimes because of this there is a hesitancy to examine the question. What follows is based on a synthesis from descriptive statistical data, comments made by participants, observations of staff, and identification of program components which would seem to contribute to success based upon common sense and instructional/learning theory.

FIVE DIMENSIONS OF THE PROGRAM'S CULTURE

There are five dimensions of the program's culture that are essential to its success. These are: commitment, administrative style, staffing, environment, and the curriculum/instructional process.

Caring Commitment

A genuine caring commitment is found at all levels. Caring commitment is the vehicle for shared program ownership.

Administrative Style

The administrative style models, communicates, and facilitates the goals and objectives of the program by providing leadership that includes: structured flexibility, open communication, and participation in decision-making. Group commitment to agreed upon goals and process is the key.

Staffing

There was a careful selection and blending of committed staff that include those with high level counseling and instructional skills, combined with grassroots community understanding. Human relations, team building, and structured flexibility are all qualities that are considered essential.

Environment

The physical and human environment are shaped to support and reflect the goals of the program. Within the physical environment there is attention to fine detail, neatness, structure, and order. The human environment combines qualities of trust, warmth, listening, compassion, structured flexibility, common sense, and meaningful standards.

Curriculum Instruction Process

The curriculum/instructional process identifies where the student is and then uses the most appropriate instructional methods available to move them step-by-step until they meet the technical and life skills curriculum goals. Advancement is based on achievement and occurs in an emotionally supportive and secure environment.

FOURTEEN FACTORS IMPORTANT TO THE PROGRAM'S SUCCESS

Fourteen program factors are judged imperative to the program success. Each factor blends multiple dimensions of the Program's culture. A summary of the factors follows:

1. Employer Participation in Formulating the Program. Benton Harbor was declared an Enterprise Zone. This means employers, who move to the area have special tax and other considerations. It was anticipated that doing this would help increase the employment in Benton Harbor. When employers were primarily hiring from outside the are, concern was raised by the city and others about not hiring more Benton Harbor residents. Employers indicated there was a lack of preparation of Benton Harbor residents both in basic skills and work ethics. This have employers incentives to participate in formulating the type of program needed based upon local conditions. Employers collaborated with Cornerstone Alliance and other agencies designing the general structure for a program that would deal with both fundamental job and technical skills as well as life skills.

2. Employers' Commitment to Provide Jobs. Employers committed to providing approximately 198 full-time jobs with fringe benefits subject to economic conditions. This provided incentives for participants and a focus for job oriented curriculum development.
3. Staffing. Staffing was a collaborative effort between the program director The staff was chosen to provide a careful blend of graduate counseling students with appropriate work experiences and individuals from the community who had an excellent understanding of how to work within the local setting. Approximately half of the staff were students from the University. Individuals from the community had academic preparation ranging from several years of college to a number who had baccalaureate degrees. The selection process sought and found staff who had strong commitments to helping individual participants improve their economic and social conditions. the need for such commitment cannot be stressed too strongly.
4. Special Staff Training. All staff were cross-trained prior to the beginning of the program in both the Adkins Life Skills Program and the use of JSEP (Job Skills Education Programs). There were two types of positions. Instructor positions were for staff who primarily worked with the JSEP materials; while counseling positions were for those who worked primarily with the life skills workshops. Some staff members were scheduled in both positions to help them better understand the relationship between the two major program components. Also, staff worked closely as a team in problem-solving when participants were not succeeding as expected.
5. Careful Evaluation of Participants. There was careful screening of participants. Evaluation included both identification of where individuals were in reading, math, and other skills important to acquiring a job, and the testing for drugs. Anyone who tested positive for drugs was not allowed to participate. However, s/he was referred to drug counseling with the opportunity to be reconsidered when s/he no longer tested positive for drugs. A minimal grade level of achievement of grade 5 in reading and math was expected for a person to begin the JSEP training. The TABLE (Test of Adult Basic Education), a test used by business and industry for employment screening, was used by the center. When a person was close to the minimum, special help was provided followed by testing.
6. Teamwork Throughout the Program. The concept stressed throughout the program is teamwork. Team approaches include: administrative style, staff participation in screening and problem solving, and participants functioning together as a team in the life skills workshops and in helping each other through coaching in conjunction with the computer-based JSEP training. Participants reinforced their understanding as they helped someone else succeed at a computer-based training module. Team approaches were stressed through role modeling, instructional episodes and in helping activities.
7. A Curriculum that Integrates Skill and Emotional Development. The curriculum integrates cognitive skills important for work success with life skills and emotional support systems. Cognitive and practical skills necessary to succeed on the job,(reading, math, and other skills) were taught within a workplace context. Life skill seminars stressed workplace human relations skills, work ethics, team building, conflict resolution, problem solving, taking responsibility, schedule planning so that family needs such as babysitting were met, planning personal priorities so one could be a dependable self-sufficient worker. Work and life skills were approached in ways that built a climate of emotional support that helped participants feel free to interact with the staff for coaching or advice and to value helping each other.
8. Instruction Begins Where a Person Is and Goes Step-by-Step. Instructional approaches might be summarized as follows: evaluation, planning, instructing, practicing. Advancement is based on achievement, the learning goes from simple to complex, concrete to generalization to application, practical examples are used to teach skills, people help each other, practice what you teach, be a role model, students help students, the cognitive is integrated with the emotional. All of these approaches are used by JSEP and/or the Life Skills program.

   Emotional support occurred in many ways. It occurred because of the openness of the Life Skills program where people helped each other with real life problem solving. What is being taught about working together is being demonstrated by the staff. It happens when structure and expectations are combined with compassion and a willingness to consider a person's reason for not meeting an appointment or failing to meet an expectation.

The total gestalt of the Center is a critical part of the curriculum. Individuals are encouraged to view what they are doing as a job. Time cards are used for checking in and out. Rigorous attendance is kept and failure to comply with appointments is dealt with in a way that is comparable to what clients would expect on the job. Responsibility is repeatedly stressed and modeled along with the ability to problem-solve without losing one's temper.

9. Multidimensional Communication is an Expectation. Throughout the program, from the first interview through job placement, communication is key. Communication continues throughout the program about what employers expect. Finally, clients are coached in becoming effective communicators in terms of problem-solving, in terms of presenting themselves to employers, and in terms that would not raised unnecessary hostility.
10. The Development of Emotional Strength. This has been mentioned earlier as part of the curriculum but it is so important that it is identified separately along with approaches that make it possible. These approaches include listening and hearing what participants have to say. This happens in many ways including the Life Skills Program as well as individual times when participants seek out instructors or counselors to express specific needs and problems. It is part of an atmosphere, an openness, when no question is considered too trivial. No need is considered unreasonable.

    The emotional development and support results in a bonding for many participants where they continue to seek coaching, problem-solving advice, and general support after leaving the Center and joining the workforce. They learn that rather than blow up they should talk to someone. It is communicated by word and deed that staff care and will be there to help as long as the program continues.
11. Support Among Participants that is fostered, recognized, and encouraged. The concept of helping one another is foster in many ways and contributes to the academic success, emotional health, and social development. If individuals are particularly gifted in an area, they are encouraged to support other participants who have less skill. Participants also discuss real problems with each other as well as with the staff.
12. On-going staff development and program modification. Getting feedback from employers, participants, and staff concerning how they feel things are going as well as gathering statistical information is ongoing. This is used to identify areas where improvement in the program might take place as well as areas where staff might need additional training. Various staff members have different skills and backgrounds. Staff who have lived in Benton Harbor for many years are keenly aware of needs and feelings in the community. This awareness is used to help staff with less background understand how to relate with greater sensitivity to the problems confronting participants and how best to address these through the program.
13. Special coaching to help participants acquire and hold jobs. Throughout the program there is a focus on getting ready to get a job. This includes helping participants understand what is a good resume, how to write one, and eventually writing their own resume. In addition there is help in how to have a successful job interview including: how do you dress?, How do you sit?, What does body language communicate?, what about eye contact? And various other aspects of finding, getting and keeping a job. There is continued emphasis on coaching job behaviors as participants get ready to become part of the job market. Participants are repeatedly urged not to make fast decisions based on an emotional outburst but rather to take their time, get counsel, develop a strategy, work out the problem. This type of coaching is highly specific to being successful in the job environment pays off over and over again as participants come back to receive help for perceived job-related human relations problems, discrimination, or unfair practices. Often, they become aware that what they

thought was unfair really has a reason behind it. At other times clients obtain strategies that help them receive greater consideration and promotion to more responsible positions.

14. Consistency. From the beginning to the end there is a commitment to provide caring consistency. Once communicated, expectations are followed up. The actions parallel what participants would expect if they were in a real job. It means consistency by each staff member and between staff members. It means participants cannot play off one staff member against another. It means you get what is promised.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR IMPROVEMENT-A PROGRAM WISH LIST

Much has been learned in the initial success of the program that could build an even stronger program. Some of the improvements can be done with little cost while others might require capital expenditures to improve the environment. These suggested improvements are given without consideration to order or cost. They include:

1. Greater resources for follow-up of individuals as they move and continue in the workforce, that is improved "home base" counseling and coaching resources.
2. Additional software to address a broader level of skills and more specific manufacturing instructional needs.
3. Recreational resources that might be as simple as an exercise room but could ideally include much more. At times strenuous physical activity can be used to reduce stress and anxiety.
4. Transportation to help participants get to the program and later on, get to work until they afford their own transportation.
5. Child care services at the Center so participants can bring their children with them. It could also provide some in-service training for selected participants who might later obtain child care jobs and help participants better understand effective parenting.
6. A materials resource center with a variety of multimedia study materials.
7. Effective ways to work more closely with schools to assist disenfranchised youth who are no longer allowed to attend school even though there is still a desire to get an education.
8. Broadened on-going participatory support systems/networks for each trainee through structures such as family, neighbors, churches, friends, mentors, Center staff, etc.

The success to date is remarkable in terms of cost benefits but even more so in terms of positive human outcomes. The experience and understanding gained through this program can serve as a pilot for other workforce development partnerships. The importance of a broadened curriculum that includes Life Skills and emotional support has been demonstrated.

It is hard to learn when you are hungry. It is equally hard for people to have positive change when they are emotionally hungry. Positive changes usually need more than cognitive or psychomotor skills training. There must be desire and commitment. This usually will not happen unless there is emotional support surrounding the person who needs to change.

This project needs to be the beginning of a continuing process that creates the desire and opportunity for lifelong learning among the at-risk youth and adults of Benton Harbor.

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AUDITING METHODOLOGY: TOOL OF ACQUISITION OF KNOWLEDGE, KNOW-HOW, PROFESSIONAL AND MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOR

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Abstract

At the moment three trends exist within teaching to convey knowledge to future managers:

- dispensing a theoretical lesson to the utmost with the aim of teaching a science,
- stressing the practical aspect, for instance the learning aspect and finally,
- alternating theoretical teaching with case studies.

These methods and experiments have shown their limits as can be witnessed by the existing gap between training and professional demands.

To address the needs of professors, students and managers, we believe that the use of auditing methodology could constitute an alternative way of acquiring knowledge, know-how and professional and managerial behavior.

INTRODUCTION

In France three main trends exist concerning the transmission of knowledge. The first consists in giving students a theoretical course, generally in an amphitheater, with the aim of teaching a science.

The second trend stresses teaching based on practical aspects. This inductive approach presumes that the students are able to build a base on their own and that the knowledge comes from practice.

These two solutions have shown their limits. With the first approach (as at university), the student is inevitably frustrated, that is to say he lacks experience, a dialogue with the situation, the acquisition of know-how and thought in the process. The failure of universities in relation to the business world can largely be explained by this pedagogical method. In the second case, the student lacks theoretical clarification and is condemned to repeating several trials. This explains their difficulty in sometimes adapting to changes in the market.

Between these two extremes, more and more business schools, like our own, alternate theoretical teaching and case studies. This solution presents advantages and allows the approach of the practical side by an adaptable situation and the theory by a situation tinted with pragmatism. But, it cannot transmit all the knowledge that the future manager needs to do his job. A school of management has one aim : training future managers in giving them not only the knowledge but also the know-how and preparing them to have professional and managerial behavior. Finally, the debate is not only about the objectives of the training but also the pedagogical methods.

Facing the inefficiencies of traditional methods, our experience of students in auditing and at present of professors of this subject at the group ESCMP leads us to suggest auditing methodology as a tool for the acquisition of knowledge, know-how, and professional and managerial behavior.

PRESENTATION OF AUDITING METHODOLOGY

An auditing assignment takes place in three stages:

The Study: Here, the auditor studies the firm to be audited. It is the acquisition stage of a general understanding of the business.

The Execution of the task: This concerns understanding the system of organization of the administration of the enterprise and the securities which are attached to it is the evaluation stage of the internal control.

The Conclusion: This last stage takes place in two stages:

- The auditor proceeds with the tests and verification so he can form an opinion: this is the final intervention.
- The auditor, on the basis of the elements collected, presents his opinion in a report which, in the case of an operational audit, must include solutions for improvement.

The Procedure for an auditor may be summarized as follows:

TABLE 1

Stages	Content
Preliminary Study ↓	General Understanding of the Enterprise 1. Preliminary work 2. First contact with Enterprise ↓
Task Execution ↓	Evaluation of Internal Control 3. Execution of Procedures 4. Tests of conformity 5. Preliminary evaluation 6. Continuous tests 7. Final evaluation ↓
Conclusion	Final Intervention 8. Final adaptation of working plan 9. Tests 10. Completion of audit 11. Report writing

How can each of these stages contribute to the acquisition of knowledge, know-how and professional and managerial behavior?

The methodology is important for the auditor. By this, one must remember the approach, the process. My auditing course at Groupe ESCMP lasts two days. At the end of the teaching, the participants complete an operational auditing assignment for one week in a firm. For the managers of the firms, who confide auditing assignments and who participate in the jury of the presentation of the report, the auditors prove their professionalism, reaching fixed objectives given.

THE EFFECTS OF RECOURSE ON AUDITING METHODOLOGY AS A TOOL OF THE ACQUISITION OF KNOWLEDGE, KNOW-HOW, PROFESSIONAL AND MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOR

HOW CAN THE STUDY STAGE ENABLE THE ACQUISITION OF KNOWLEDGE AND PROFESSIONAL BEHAVIOR?

Presentation of Stage 1

Also called the discovery and general acquisition stage, the stage of general understanding of the enterprise has three parts:

- The gathering of necessary information or the process of the assignment. In fact the auditing procedure necessitates minimal knowledge of the firm to be audited and the environment, knowledge which will be specified and enriched step by step. The auditor must be familiar with all internal and external documents relating to the firm:
  - The marketing strategy of the firm
  - The organization chart
  - Financial information
  - Procedure manuals
  - The internal information system e.g. in-house magazines
  - Auditor reports (if they exist)
  - Historical records of the firm
  - Sector statistics. in short, all information which allows the auditor to identify the risks and main difficulties.
- Meeting the people concerned with the auditing task and asking the right questions (which allows one to obtain reliable and pertinent information)At this stage the auditor looks primarily to obtain the maximum of useful information in a minimum of time. He proceeds essentially with interviews of supervisors and visits of the firm. These interviews must be programmed according to the general objective of the assignment and the position of the person in the firm. All the information gathered and classified in a file allows the auditor to make a preliminary evaluation.
- Preliminary evaluation of the firm. The objective of this sequence is to see whether the task requested is possible in terms of size of risks, time limits and cost.

The study stage can be outlined as follows:

TABLE 2

A/ Preliminary Studies:	understanding of the external documentation of the firm taking into account elements for comparison of firms
B/ First contact with the enterprise:	interviews with supervisors, company visits understanding of internal documentation
C/ Launching of operations:	development of program of intervention

Reports and Pedagogical Reports

Previous professional experience and the results obtained by my auditors prove that the study stage allows one to become informed and also rapidly trained in relation to the firm and the environment. The auditors are informed rapidly and effectively due to specific documentation put at their disposition. This includes all the technical and human aspects requiring an understanding, training and access to knowledge by the auditor.

Stage 1 is a delicate matter because it depends on the success or failure of the assignment and the human factor must be taken into account. In fact the aim of the auditor is to remedy the problems of a firm. But, he must first of all reveal the weaknesses. It is generally the second aspect, the human factor, which may lead to negative reactions. The auditor must therefore accept that the people in the firm have a subconscious of values, perceptions and especially of territory. Besides his competence, the auditor must prove a minimum understanding of psychology and tact. The behavior and style of the auditor reveals the good or bad comprehension of his role in the firm. This shows his professional values. The proof of humility, in short the adoption of professional behavior allows the auditors to obtain rare information which is not accessible in the hierarchy.

Pedagogical Links

In transposing this stage to a pedagogical level, several lessons can be learnt. Instead of beginning by teaching such and such a subject, the teacher and the school give students the documentation. The professor chooses the subject. The students have to find information from the existing documentation and present the results of the research publicly.

The advantages are multiple:

- development of the direction of the organization
- knowledge acquired of the area concerning different aspects learning of gathering techniques and the processing of information, the interview, speaking in public
- demands and rigour at work
- learning about team work

This preliminary work leads to the understanding of difficulties which may appear. Therefore, the students do not expect everything from the professor as in many present methods. The latter has more of a coordinating role. He has taught in such a manner as to obtain the necessary information by understanding. It is for the students to discover the area to be studied and to understand the difficulties or areas for improvement.

But, for this method to be efficient, presume that the students have received training in the different areas of management and that the teacher possesses all the up to date documentation necessary for the knowledge and understanding of the subject area to be studied.

If the study phase allows the students to know the subject to be processed quickly, what can we expect from the second stage?

HOW CAN THE EXECUTION OF THE ASSIGNMENT CONTRIBUTE TO THE ACQUISITION OF KNOW-HOW AND BEHAVIOUR?

Presentation of Stage 2

The auditing team knows the work programme content (according to table 1, the objectives of the task). This is the most repetitive part because it calls for techniques, making use of tools. The team must be systematic and follow a certain process.

First of all the auditor learns about the procedures applied by the firm. He makes a diagnosis and determines therefore how he can rely on the quality of the preocedures or on the contrary, make use of more developed skills, if he believes that the internal control procedures present certain weaknesses.

There are five steps to the examination and evaluation of procedures:

Use of Procedures

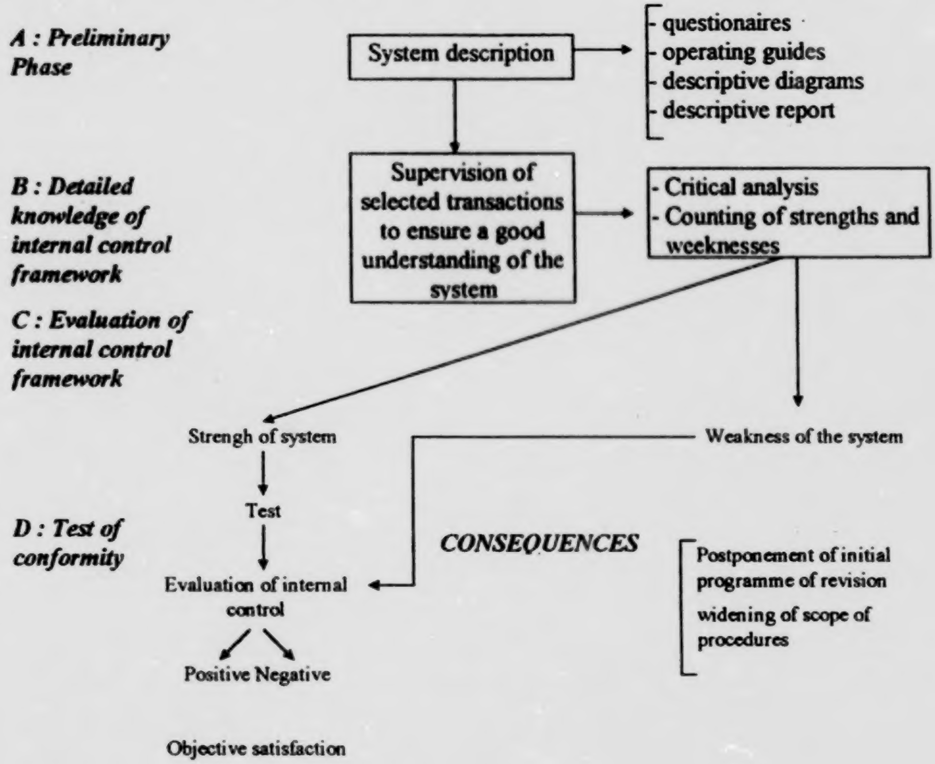
The auditor identifies the internal control system and chooses among the business cycles to determine those he will examine in order of priority and most thoroughly. For example, purchases, sales. In the case of an operational audit, it concerns the functions of the firm ie. production cycle, distribution, supplies, commercial functions, personnel, treasuryFor each of the sections of work, the auditor checks and formalizes all the procedures which characterize the development of of operations. If it concerns customer sales for example, the auditor has to check and formalize all stages, from the recording of the order to the recording of the payment. This work is performed either by the examination of written documentation within the firm (procedure manual), or by interview with the auditors. This first step allows the auditor to learn for example how a sales operation unfolds

Conformity Test

At this stage the auditor assures himself that he has correctly performed the internal control. For each procedure he checks that each point has been noted and understood. For this he follows step by step some transactions in order to verify the existence and comprehension of the system by reconciliation. The aim is to allow the auditor to correct errors of understanding or inaccuracy in the description of procedures In putting therefore the situation in the framework of a function, the auditor acquires the know how. He can then judge the efficiency of the internal control system. This is the preliminary evaluation step that will only be finalized after having tested that the strengths are verified and that the weaknesses are identified. A synthesis document, called the internal control report, indicates the findings and necessary recommendations for the improvement of procedures. This report contains a number of constructive aspects of the auditor's assignment.

Table 3 outlines the execution phase of the auditing task:

TABLE 3


A : Preliminary Phase
System description
- questionaires
- operating guides
- descriptive diagrams
- descriptive report
B : Detailed knowledge of internal control framework
Supervision of selected transactions to ensure a good understanding of the system
- Critical analysis
- Counting of strengths and weeknesses
C : Evaluation of internal control framework
Strengh of system
Weakness of the system
Test
D : Test of conformity
CONSEQUENCES
Postponement of initial programme of revision
widening of scope of procedures
Evaluation of internal control
Positive Negative
Objective satisfaction

Reports and Pedagogical Links

- Reports: During the week of auditing in the firm, our students (auditors) complete assignments for the managers of firms. They are realized autonomously respecting the methodology taught. They learn their task and sometimes doubt their aptitude in reaching the objectives which were fixed by the management of the firm. After the realization of the tasks the managing director has to validate them. An appreciation of the auditors' work must be given:
    - reaching of objectives
    - adaptation capacities
    - professionalism
    - pertinence and recommendations

The appreciations given by the managing directors are at our disposition and show that their expectations are largely fulfilled. These results are confirmed by the fact that often, the auditors are asked to bring solutions to problem areas that they have disclosed: the auditors also become consultants. They have acquired know-how and professional behavior because, during their task they knew how to adapt themselves accordingly. They learn about the culture of the firm and how to identify with it.

Concerning the acquisition of managerial behavior, we can use four verbs to illustrate these actions: planning, organization, using and controlling.

Before and during the execution of the task the auditor has instruments. He plans the interventions, divides the roles among the participants and proceeds with the allocation of resources in the aim of obtaining the results wished (organizing)The auditor also coordinates the diverse activities of managing using a certain type of authority and he assures that the materials and manpower are made use of to achieve the aims and are verified so that the objectives are realized (control)Like all managers, the auditor also takes decisions in deciding the extent of the work to be realized, by accepting or refusing the task, by deciding on the budget or personnel needed to complete the task. The biggest decision he takes is that of giving his opinion on the system or financial status. Finally, the auditor carries out all the actions of a manager.

In contrast with traditional methods, that is to say training periods, student auditors realize a real assignment, on a precise theme and connected to their education. They rely on the methodology taught to disclose problems and bring realistic and practical solutions. Therefore, the training periods are not completely separate from the preoccupations of the executives. Due to the added value that the student auditors bring, they cannot be considered as a charge for the firm. This is the justification of the importance of the tasks proposed. I was particularly struck by the difference existing between the students before and after the assignments in the firm. The change for the majority was noticeable mainly at the levels of behavior and reasoning.

Pedagogical Links

This more practical second phase corresponds with the work in the field. Should the occasion arise, it may consist of a case study. The objective is to put the student in the role of an actor, to assure he has good command of the area, the tools, the functioning of an organization and the structure of a subject. The appreciation of work presented will depend on criteria such as oral skills, the strength of propositions and conviction, the ability to take decisions. The criteria will be logical reasoning, the process of reflection and actions.

The mark attributed to the student by the teacher for the presentation of the work demanded will only be definitive after having evaluated, measured the performance of the whole class. The participation of an employee of the enterprise is obligatory for the presentation of the final report of the training period. Thus, the responsibility of all parties is collectively undertaken.

WHAT DOES THE CONCLUSION OF THE ASSIGNMENT CONTRIBUTE TO THE ACCOMPLISHMENT OF THE MANAGER?

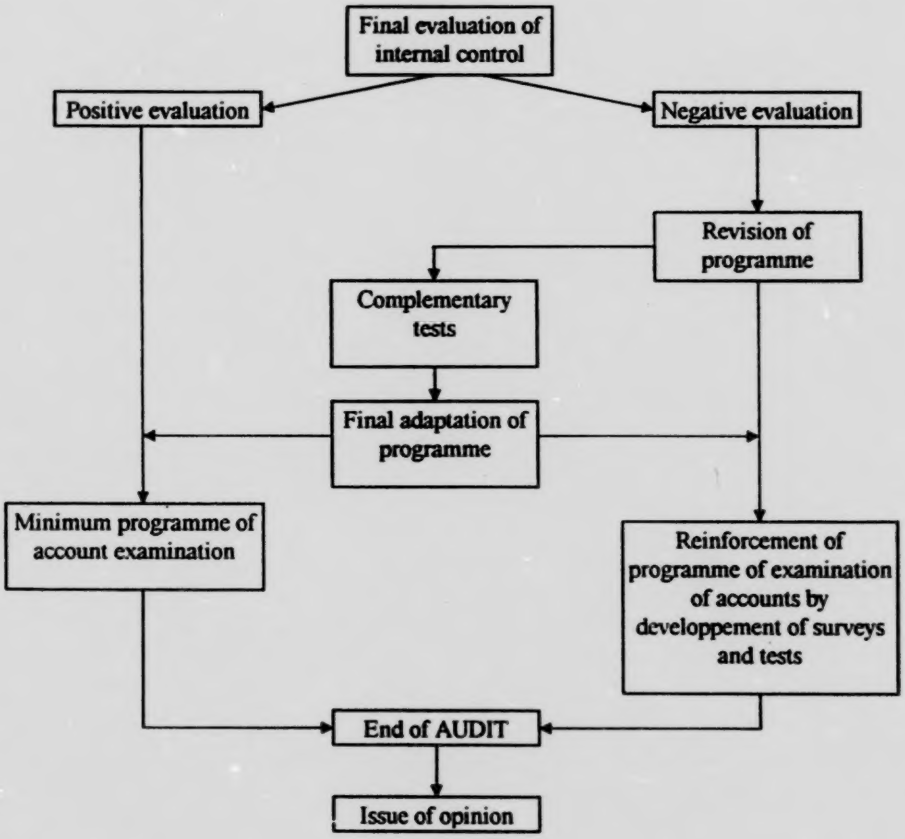
PRESENTATION OF FINAL INTERVENTION

The internal control report is not generally the final product of the audit. In fact, the auditor must again proceed with a final evaluation. According to conclusions drawn from the second stage on strengths and guarantees which are related, on weaknesses of conception and application and on the risks which are related, the auditor can reinforce the standard program of operation verification by the development of tests and surveys.

The aim, for the auditor, is to be able to give an opinion on the quality of financial information or the efficiency of the internal control. To do this the auditor makes use of the final stages of the auditing process to know:

- the estimation of the results of the auditing procedures used
- review financial state and explanation of problems detected
- review audit objectives and definition of the task to assure the pertinence and adequacy of work effected and conclusions found.

The auditor can, after each step, give an opinion in a report. The third stage is summarized schematically.


Final evaluation of internal control
Positive evaluation
Negative evaluation
Revision of programme
Complementary tests
Final adaptation of programme
Minimum programme of account examination
Reinforcement of programme of examination of accounts by developpement of surveys and tests
End of AUDIT
Issue of opinion

REPORT AND PEDAGOGICAL LINKS

Reports

As was said previously, this stage has allowed the auditors to experience the qualities required of a manager, such as:

- ability of analysis and synthesis
- flexibility
- perseverance
- team work
- availability
- knowledge of languages

In the final evaluation, our professors attribute coefficients to the auditors which clearly indicate the qualities used during the assignment (seen from presentation of report)In present teaching methods these qualities have not always been appreciated.

Pedagogical links

We have seen from phase two that the auditor proceeded with a preliminary evaluation of internal control concerning the weaknesses and strengths. The opinion of the auditor (final stage) is only of interest after having reviewed the results, the problems, objectives and the purpose of the assignment.

Pedagogically, the professor must decide on the content of the training for the students. This results in either a degree or in the student re-taking the year.

CONCLUSION

The pedagogical approach that we have proposed presents several advantages:

- Due to a structured approach the students are in charge: they are actors and not spectators. They make an inventory and gather first of all the ancient documents. The exploitàtion of this contributes to their culture of the subject and their general knowledge. At present this work is done by the professor who chooses what is appropriate for the students. The professor has a role of judge and coordinator. The students spend more time in libraries and documentary centers than in the classroom. The initial stage is shorter than the second:
- Work in the field: This concerns establishing a link between the teaching of the method, reasoning, analysis of problems and the area of application. The students are therefore in contact with the main functions of the firm and administration. This leads to an attractive, efficient and interactive service.

But the use and success of the pedagogical approach will imply a modification of mentalities of all are participants: students, public and entrepreneurs. Are they ready to begin this adventure?

CAN'T SEE THE FOREST FOR THE TREES: ANATOMY OF A CULTURAL CLASH

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Abstract

Canadian-Asian relations have enjoyed a period of relative harmony that is now being disturbed by the influx of new Asian immigrants. At the heart of this controversy is the clearing of old trees in established neighborhoods. Cooperation has been noticeably absent in the tree disputes. This case analysis aims to increase awareness and understanding of the role of culture in this conflict.

After nearly a century of racism in British Columbia, the Chinese finally gained the right to vote and began to witness the repeal of other discriminatory laws and practices. According to Yee [1988], the root of this anti-Chinese legislation lay in the belief that the Chinese drove out white labor and pushed down wages because they worked at lower rates. For almost three decades, there has been a perception of relative harmony that is now disturbed by the influx of Asian immigrants, and more specifically, the Chinese from Hong Kong. Unlike the immigrants of a century ago who came from China's Guangdong province seeking 'Gold Mountain,' these Chinese newcomers are educated and bring their own mountains of gold.

Canada, and especially British Columbia actively solicit Asian trade and investment. As part of this courtship, Canada has declared 1997 to be the "Year of Asia Pacific" [Wood & So, 1997]. In 1995, trade with Hong Kong alone, accounted for $460 million of the trade surplus. As well, an estimated 500,000 Canadians have family roots in Hong Kong and with the recent return of Hong Kong to China, another 110,000 Hong Kong residents hold Canadian passports as security. Yet given this level of activity, British Columbians seem surprised by the results of this business relationship and their unpreparedness gives way to tensions that surface with increasing frequency. Incidents that would ordinarily be viewed as a matter between neighbors, emerge in news headlines and call for legal intervention. In particular, the clearing of old trees in established neighborhoods to erect huge dwellings termed 'monster houses,' is at the heart of the controversy.

The issue of tree removal from private property is not a new topic. The West Vancouver District has had ongoing dialogue between those residents who have lost their scenic views due to the growth of healthy trees and residents who don't want to cut or trim their trees to enhance their neighbors' views. In response, West Vancouver District Council hired an arborist to assess trees and to mediate tree-related disputes between property owners. In other municipalities where the tree disputes center on the right of private property owners to cut trees on their own property, local bylaws prevail. These tree disputes are clearly seen as a racial issue. Brunet [1996] writes that the "blue-blood enclave of Kerrisdale" is the most vocal in voicing their displeasure with the tree-cutting Chinese property owners.

Gadlin [1994] opines that race needs attention in two types of grievances. There are grievances where race is definitely part of the complaint and those where there is no reference at all to race (except perhaps to deny its role) but race speaks "sotto voce [sic]" conveying anger, hostility, and resentment. In the tree disputes, race is indeed speaking in the softer voice of explicit cultural differences and whispering discreetly of tacit cultural beliefs creating misunderstanding and ill will.

According to Ross [in Gadlin, 1994], culture is "the practices and values common to a population living in a given setting." Moreover, we use our own culture as the measure of other cultures and herein, lies the difficulty. Dubinskas [1992] proposes "the problem is that groups use their own naturalized cultural standards to appraise the actions of the other, and these are not the standards by which the others guide themselves." He recognizes a mismatch between the interaction of cultural pattern and coherence. In a like manner, Morgan (1989) believes that cultural practices and values can be conceived of as a language replete with differences in pragmatics. He asserts "we live culture exactly as we live language: by 'speaking it' and 'reading it' - in the way we talk, act, spend our time, relate to others, and so on." He refers to cultural preferences in i) the language of time, ii) the language of friendships, iii) the language of agreements, iv) the language of space, and v) the language of things. In order to understand more clearly, the incongruence between what is understood and what is done, we can use Morgan's language model of culture to frame the Chinese perspective of the tree issue and to contrast overall cultural preferences.

First, in the language of time, the ancient Chinese concept of 'wu wei' suggests that control is out of human hands. Chu (1991) elaborates, "We should first act in harmony with nature, give our best effort, and then leave the outcome to Tao." This 'wait and see' attitude sits in strong contrast to a North American belief that 'time is money.' The Chinese are content to hang back and let the tree issue evolve. The non-Chinese neighbors not only want action now, they want stiff bylaws to take care of the future, too.

Secondly, when it comes to friendships, the Chinese are more collectivists than individualists. They are interested in forming long-term relationships for mutual benefit. Chu [1991] opines "The Chinese keep a mental ledger of the obligations owed to friends and obligations owed them for past favors." As well, the Chinese are bound by ceremony whereas North Americans tend to dispose with preliminaries; often at the expense of the relationship and in favor of getting down to business. For instance, the local citizens go first to the media to publicize the tree disputes in hopes of quick action. Thirdly and relatedly, the Chinese have developed their own way of taking care of business and agreements. Chu [1991] explains "unlike Westerners, the Chinese do not like to fight the system. When it becomes a problem for them, they would rather work around it than confront it....the Chinese circumvent authority without defying it." The collectivist nature of the Chinese, may place more weight on informal agreements than formal agreements. In addition, directness is not a sign of strength as it is for North America and is socially unacceptable. The tree disputes have resulted in outright confrontation and a loss of face.

Next, the language of Chinese space is guided by 'feng shui,' a philosophy of balance in nature. Trees in front of a home can be thought to impede the flow of wealth. However, the Chinese are not indiscriminate in cutting down trees. "Feng shui considers the tree to be...an outlet for positive energy from inside the Earth's inner core. Without the tree, the Earth would lose the ability to receive positive energies essential to overall energy balance and life" (Chen 1994). If the Chinese are indeed guided by feng shui, it only makes sense that they would choose to leave some trees standing or replant them. Why is it then, some properties are clearcut of trees? Some realtors believe that Vancouver's home market is driven by the Western perceptions of what Asian buyers want. Executive realtor, Susie Tai exhorts "it's more a factor of the vendors trying to cater to what they think the Chinese want than it is of Chinese people actually asking for it" [Montgomery, 1996].

Lastly and not unpredictably, the Chinese esteem different things from Westerners. Coleburn, a Penticton author on feng shui writes "North Americans value greenery, whereas the Chinese value mountains and water" [Brunet, 1996]. Hence, she adds that the Chinese have no tradition of either keeping cities green or other environmental issues. For instance, in Hong Kong itself, space is precious and the harbor is the garbage dump. Coleburn further theorizes that "many of [the Chinese] came here to flee communism, only to be faced with having their activities in their own backyard monitored." However, Vancouver city councillor Maggie Ip calls for a bylaw that "balances the public interest and what we treasure as private property rights" [Douglas, 1996]. Thus, the tree disputes are rooted in a culture spanning thousands of years and enveloped in a prevailing air of providence. Long-term reciprocal relationships punctuated by tradition, ceremony, and face-saving as well as a respect for nature not grounded in ecological principles further complicate understanding by outsiders.

When considering the Chinese community in the Lower Mainland of British Columbia, only the most general and inclusive language can by used to describe the culture. The Chinese community is a mosaic in itself. Beside the Hong Kong Chinese, there are the Chinese who have lived in Canada for generations, the ethnic Chinese from Taiwan, Vietnam, the Philippines, Singapore, and the survivors of the Tiananmen Square Massacre; to name but a few. Each of these cultural lenses of Chinese identity is somewhat different. Consequently, within the Chinese community, dissident perspectives on the tree issue must exist too.

Ignoring the role of cultural differences, Anthony Marr, a Chinese-Canadian himself, and a member of the Western Canada Wilderness Committee opines "It has mostly been Chinese people who have ordered the cutting...not all people are so disrespectful of a community they have moved into" [Brunet, 1996]. Similar sentiments are reported by the Ming Pao, a Richmond-based daily newspaper of the Chinese community. According to a poll of ethnic Chinese conducted by the Ming Pao, 77% agreed that Chinese immigrants follow customs that contribute to racial tension and 87% further indicated that Chinese people should adopt local British Columbia customs. An editorial urges "the Chinese should work on habits that annoy locals and that they should try to adopt local ways" [Collins, 1995].

Choi [1995] suggests that competencies in language expectation, cultural windows, business ethics, and negotiations are the means to reconciling cultural differences. Choi's rubric will be used to organize the description of programs initiated by the Canadians of Chinese descent and Canadians of non-Chinese origins to develop cultural competencies.

The first category, language expectation refers not only to the sounds and structures of a language but also to the rules governing when and how a particular language should be used. The Ming Pao reports that "the speaking of Cantonese or Mandarin loudly in mixed settings" [Collins, 1995] is perceived as an annoying habit. In order to foster the competencies of both Chinese and English speakers, the British Columbia government has launched initiatives in the area of language. The Ministry of Education has expanded the foreign language curriculum to include Mandarin. Bursaries are available to encourage teachers to learn Chinese languages and culture. As well, funds are targeted to provide English as a second language to new immigrants. Similarly, the Chinese language media have responded to the language needs of the Chinese community. The three Chinese dailies, two Chinese television stations and two Chinese radio stations see their role as beyond merely selling newspapers and air-time. Bula [1997] relates "Chinese reporters and editors emphasize that Chinese media do not help Vancouver Chinese isolate themselves from the rest of the community. On the contrary: They act as a bridge to the new community." Consequently, not only is what the Chinese media report different from that of the English-language media, the perspective differs as well. Furthermore, Bula proclaims "While English-language media have a tendency to focus on the image of wealthy Chinese immigrants taking over they city, Chinese-language media see their readers as a group struggling to overcome language, immigration, financial, and employment problems and sometimes failing."

The second category Choi designates is cultural windows. He describes cultural windows as being "opportunities for becoming part of the local environment most effectively." The Ming Pao charges that some Chinese distinguish themselves from the local setting by picking their ears and clipping their nail in public, much to the disgust of non-Chinese [Collins, 1995]. On the other hand, traditional family celebrations around Chinese New Year have become huge public and multiethnic gatherings acting as a conduit to cultural understanding. Vancouver city councillor, Don Lee notes "big festivals are introducing Chinese culture to the larger community." As well, other agencies expand their mandate to include non-Chinese clients. For example, Angela Kan, executive director of the Chinese Cultural Center says that the center's own events are "an opportunity to introduce people to Chinese culture" [Clark, 1997].

The third category Choi considers is business ethics. Business ethics are the awareness and appreciation of the social environment and context. According to the Ming Pao [Collins, 1995], a lack of social responsibility forms the basis of complaints around not only the monster homes in bungalow neighborhoods, but extends to poor driving habits and the failure to observe line-ups at stores, too. The assuming of social responsibility by the Chinese has not been highlighted until recently. In the past, their virtues have remained in the background. Among those bringing social conscience to the foreground is David Lam, the first Chinese lieutenant-governor of British Columbia. Lam has always tithed 10% of his income to charity. Hong Kong based newspaper baroness Sally Aw Sian funds the University of British Columbia journalism school to the tune of $1 million in the name of "goodwill" [$1 Million, 1996]. Now, with some regularity, the Weekend Sun profiles the generosity or the accomplishments of an individual of Chinese ancestry. Gary Ho, a well-known local philanthropist captured the front page of the Westcoast People Section [Stainsby, 1997]. Two weeks later, the spot was held by Madam Justice Linda Loo, the first female Chinese-Canadian judge in the British Columbia Supreme Court [Wigod, 1997].

Choi's final category is negotiations. He uses the term in a broad sense to describe cooperation to reach mutual positive goals. Cooperation has been noticeably absent in the tree disputes. In the interests of cooperation, significant efforts on the part of both non-Chinese and Chinese have been made. The Multiculturalism and Dispute Resolution Project funded by a number of foundations "undertook the task of increasing awareness and understanding of the role of culture in conflict" [Lund, Morris, & Duryea, 1994]. Likewise, the United Chinese Community Enrichment Services Society (SUCCESS), a service organization targets all Chinese in the Lower Mainland and exists to "foster and promote social awareness and community involvement through civic education, volunteer and membership development and preventive social services, and reflect the needs and issues of the Chinese-Canadians community to individuals, agencies and the public media, and to advocate for positive social changes" [Festival, 1992].

Essentially, British Columbians establish and sustain initiatives in the areas of language development, cultural events, social responsibility, and conflict resolution as basic resources to cultural competence. The question remains as to whether or not these actions will suffice. In the tree disputes, the influence of the cultural competencies in eliciting understanding and cooperation would appear to be minimal. Bill Rees, director of the School of Regional and Community Planning at the University of British Columbia indites "the tree debate is about far more than aesthetic tastes. It is about protecting a sense of place, community tradition and shared values" [Todd, 1996]. If Rees is right, cultural conflicts will continue and we have much to fear. Gadlin [1994] theorizes that dominant groups "interpret their success as a confirmation of the standards by which their accomplishments have been measured." As such, we must acknowledge that the trees do indeed signify something beyond landscaping preferences and their cutting is an affront to the dominant culture.

Gadlin [1994] reminds us "agreement and disagreement, conflict and cooperation are all dependent upon and given meaning by the culture within which they occur." For Canadians, there may be an imperative to define what that dominant culture is, its beliefs, and its practices; for until we know that, we will be just as trees in a forest - some in groves, some appearing different and standing quite apart - seldom viewed collectively as a forest. Yet, there is value in being trees in a forest. Our seeds have been sown on the winds of hope for a better life. Loh, a director of SUCCESS muses "those who have made Canada home are the same as the rest of us. They want a job and good livelihood in Canada, a stable and improving lifestyle, and a government with good policies that will help stimulate and improve the economy" [Mulgrew, 1997].

We must not forget that it is the passion that we demonstrate through our small acts which leads us forward. It is a passion reflecting our common culture, those overarching universal beliefs in respect, caring, and procedural fairness that truly holds a country together.

Although we cannot see the forest for the trees, it is the trees that hold the forest fast.

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COLLABORATION IN RESEARCHING, WRITING, AND PUBLISHING CASES

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Abstract

While collaborative writing is regularly prescribed as a valuable goal for students doing case method study, few generally available guidelines are advanced for faculty members who are researching and preparing cases for their own classroom use. Preparing the narrative is one of the most daunting tasks of the case process. Even when the sole case writer and user engages in narrative preparation, it is likely that collaborative help is needed and has been used. Demands for collaborative work increase when interdisciplinary perspectives are involved. This paper reviews the range of collaborative practices associated with case writing and casebook editing.

INTRODUCTION

Collaborative learning is a highly recommended experience, even an expectation, for the students in many of our courses, no matter what the discipline [Kuiper, 1994]. Case study teaching guides and articles in academic journals tout collaborative writing as a valuable tool to practice and use. We spend time as pedagogues assuring one another that collaborative writing has values for students in researching, analyzing, writing, and presenting. We regularly spend time designing and planning our courses so that students can profit from collaborative investigation and collaborative writing.

Notes or guidelines for the collaborative work of case researchers and writers seem not as widely available or disseminated however [Rymer, 1994]. To be sure, those constantly or near constantly engaged in the supervision of case research processes and case writing will be provided training and guidelines. For many end users, however, the difficult task of case writing does not include much of the work of others.

If we accept the recommendations of Desbiens and Bernaman [1991] and see the obvious values in writing our own cases, this often implies sole preparation: researching, preparing the narrative, writing instructor's notes; suggesting or deciding on instructional approaches [Forbes & Isabell, 1998]. This solo activity may well include revising, correcting, adding or deleting, emphasizing or de-emphasizing certain areas, frequently the very reason we need additional perspectives.

Yin argues that the compositional phase places greatest demands on a researcher/teacher [1994]. He cautions that composition must be given explicit attention through the entire case process and phases--from selecting the data, identifying case goals, to preparing the narrative form for pedagogical purposes. Leenders & Erskine [1973] concur that the writing of a case is a "function of the relationship between researcher or researchers, the writer, and final user(s)" There may or may not be an editor or editorial role interposed. All players in the process need guidelines, however, about announced and anticipated goals and uses.

Academics who do all of the requisite research and data tasks in the process may or may not have the skill or an interest in handling development of a narrative. Effective writers and editors are then needed. Without those intermediaries there may be too few or too many details, too little or too much dialogue (usually too little), too much explicit pointing out or highlighting of the principles or concepts that readers or users ideally are supposed to supply.

Users of cases prepared by someone else- whether individual cases or case compilations- are often dependent upon having the following elements provided without their input:

- full case narrative
- background and context of the case
- follow-up information, if available
- instructor's notes, readings and questions
- commentaries or analyses (if provided)

Essentially, such externally prepared cases, with whatever level of supports, are basically a "closed book." Usually there is little an instructor can add or vary by way of context or insights about other contributing elements of that particular case. Such extreme dependence can be altered when a case has been both researched and written by collaborative teams.

THE CALL FOR COLLABORATION

The tasks of collaborating, of coordinating the process, and of editing for final use, are profound enough when colleagues in a singular discipline work together. Such tasks are compounded when cases are prepared by and for interdisciplinary teams. The key elements of such collaboration include: a shared vision of the concepts or principles which are to be imbedded in the case, the existence of complementary skills in or across the disciplines (analysis and presentation both), and useful writing skills which can at least get the basics of a case onto paper and into the development process. Patti and Tucker [1996] point out that while the use of such interdisciplinary cases has not been common, those efforts are increasing now, energized by advances and increases in team teaching and integrated curriculum. Patti and Tucker further say that they see interdisciplinary cases as the future of business education cases.

Allen, Nelson, and Young [1991] describe how faculty from various business oriented areas collaborated to develop a macro case to serve as a pedagogical tool to unify multiple business disciplines in a business ethics course. In their integration model, fourteen faculty members from six departments each addressed the ethics of business from their functional perspectives. Collaboration is inherent, absolutely essential in those interdisciplinary initiatives.

When such multiple researching and writing efforts are undertaken, what is involved in the collaboration? Even if guidelines are present and followed in research or composition, several actions are likely to be necessary:

- selection of the point of view;
- identification of case details and information to be included;
- determination of a particular theoretical community and communication perspective [Stewart, 1991];
- interactive work with writers and researchers to prepare, refine, and finalize all instructor's notes;
- editorial calls for further data or detail;
- editorial acts excising excessive or unneeded items.

THE EXPERIENCE OF COLLABORATIVE EDITING

My own personal perspective of the collaborative process has been forged by work as editor of a casebook. For that project it was necessary to notify potential contributors about the overall purposes of the proposed casebook. Subsequently it was necessary to disseminate guidelines for all aspects of the proposed case, solicit cases, review all the submissions, edit a selected case--sometimes through several drafts, solicit and edit Instructor's notes and appropriate conceptual bibliography or additional readings, discuss the nature of questions to be included with the case, and gather and compile permissions and releases. In addition, the following tasks—all necessitating collaborative work--were part of the responsibility of editorship:

- establish casebook sections/units
- determine criteria for preparation and selection
- establish some degree of commonality in format
- insist upon more detail, more dialogue
- delete extraneous items, delete theoretical discourse from narrative
- ask for post-case results
- compare, contrast, and balance a single case with other cases in a section
- prepare letters of acceptance for faculty members (their deans and department heads).

Today, reviewing the need for collaboration once more in putting together a revised edition of a casebook, the disciplinary and interdisciplinary foci of the contributors is recognized and valued immensely. Only now, perhaps am I more fully realizing why the process has been so challenging. Case contributors for a second edition of a casebook represent the following experiences and disciplines:

College of Business (Dean, Professor)
Speech Communication (Ethnography emphasis)
Management
Training and Development Manager - Large, high-tech corporation
Sociology/Consulting
Registered Nurse
Human Resource Manager, private, large manufacturing corporation
Accounting
Advertising
Law
Journalism
Marketing
Human Resources Researcher
Technology Reporter/Author
English Literature/Corporate Communication
Organizational Communication/Consultation
Education Administration

Fortunately, all the listed disciplines were not represented in a single case, but as many as three separate disciplinary areas were united in the preparation of one of the cases. Fortunately also, the process has become easier with the use of technological advances in computer software--including groupware and e-mail --to make information transfer more rapid and more thorough.

The interdisciplinary collaboration necessary to get a case prepared for publication can be illustrated by a case prepared by a professor of organizational communication and a human resources manager for a large aluminum manufacturing facility. The two collaborators first presented the results of a recent company initiative to include more team involvement in decisions to an audience of communication professionals at a professional conference. The casebook editor, always on the lookout for material which might be developed into a potential case, approached the authors about their interest in preparing the events and processes in case form. The conference paper had a focus on the process and the communication principles involved. Authors were asked if they had access to meetings, events, comments, reports which could be framed together as a narrative. They had that information. A draft of the basic events which had transpired was prepared and sent to the casebook editor. The task was bounced back to the original researchers and writers after it was determined there was a need for more narrative—including dialogue—and still much less discussion about the conceptual rationale for implementation of the teams. The next draft, which became almost totally narrative, with characters and job titles included, posed the problem the company faced, what they did to address the problem, and how they went about resolving the issue. Readers of the case will now have an orientation to the company and company goals, an extended illustration of a problem, and depiction of what the organization did and how they tried to achieve a change. Readers themselves will now also have to provide analysis, make and justify recommendations-

—based upon their own understanding of the strengths and limitations of team utilization. Teaching notes, additional updates on what has happened to the effort, and additional readings are still in process of development—coming first from the case contributors, but also to be reviewed and edited by the casebook editor for final presentation.

Finally, it is not only the research, writing, and teaching skills which are important in collaborative efforts. Good humor and good will are needed of case writers and researchers, who may often have to accept final decisions resting somewhere else, often with an editor who may not represent the writers' own perspectives or disciplinary views. As much work as it encompasses, there is a greater depth of case material likely, and tremendous satisfaction to be gained by those who labor together in true collaboration.

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THE DEPAUL UNIVERSITY DIRECT MARKETING INSTITUTE'S CASE WRITERS' WORKSHOP A CASE OF NURTURING CASES

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to discuss a framework to help faculty conduct applied research to develop educational cases in the direct marketing discipline. Educators and practitioners in the direct marketing field recognized a need for realistic and current cases dealing with substantive direct marketing issues. Recognizing this need, executives of the educational foundations of two of the professional organizations, the Chicago Association of Direct Marketing Education Foundation (CADMEF) and the Direct Marketing Education Foundation (DMEF) approached DePaul's Institute to find a solution to the problem. Offered in Chicago for the past three years, the Direct Marketing Case Writers' Workshop has had some success in creating cases that are being employed in classrooms around the U.S. The Case Writers' Workshop faces a new challenge for the Institute Director and the case writers. The program will be offered in San Francisco next year and it remains to be seen if the framework can be "taken on the road."

INTRODUCTION - WHY THE WORKSHOP?

The Direct Marketing Institute at DePaul University was established in 1989 to offer professional direct marketing education for students and practitioners. The Institute established certificate programs which dealt with all phases of the industry, including database, integrated, and relationship marketing as well as telemarketing, copywriting and list development. The classes have been taught by some academicians, but for the most part by practitioners.

In the early 1990's the faculty and director of the Institute recognized that description and theory were not sufficient materials for adequate learning. Also, members of two direct marketing industry associations recognized that there was a pressing need to enhance the quality of education in direct marketing. The field was beginning to expand and the need for employees was growing. This expansion meant there were more jobs, but the educational system was not producing enough experienced personnel to fill those jobs. Some felt that the educational system needed materials which would provide the background to make potential employees more career-ready. Some practitioners and faculty felt that current and realistic cases might be part of the solution. However, a review of the available direct marketing cases with the typical case depositories, e.g. case texts and Harvard Case Clearing House, showed that there were few cases available to educators who taught the theory and techniques of the discipline as it is being practiced today.

The two associations of direct marketing practitioners recognized that something had to be done to encourage the educational system to train personnel to be successful in the field. Therefore, avenues were sought which were thought to lead to developing more cases. Some attempts were made to simply pay for faculty members to write cases. This resulted in money being spent and resulting in no cases. The members of the Educational Foundation of one of the major industry associations, Chicago Association of Direct Marketing, decided to try an alternative approach.

CHALLENGES OF GENERATING CASES

The approach suggested was to simply bring case writers and companies together in a workshop scenario. In theory, the concept seemed to be the solution to the problem. Case writers interested in direct marketing would be placed together with companies who wanted to let students learn about some of their organization's interesting direct marketing issues.

CHALLENGES OF ATTRACTING CASE WRITERS

In practice, this meant finding case writers who knew about the direct marketing field, or direct marketing educators who knew how to write cases. Of course the ideal would be to find authors comfortable with both case writing and direct marketing. However, since there was such a paucity of direct marketing cases, it was clear that those ideal individuals were in short supply. Therefore, it was determined that the case writers would need some education in either direct marketing or case writing, or both.

Two obstacles were apparent. 1. Direct marketing practitioners, knowledgeable of direct marketing issues, were less inclined to do cases unless there was major financial reward. Practitioner case writing has been common in businesses, but it is conducted for proprietary purposes and therefore not typically available for general education. 2. Often the academic environment inhibits case writing because it has not been considered academic or scholarly work. Therefore, the availability of faculty with case writing experience tends to be limited, even though they might have direct marketing experience.

The Institute personnel and advisors concluded that to attract case writers, an academic event would have to be developed. The event would need to offer training in case writing and some direct marketing immersion. Both of these could facilitate teaching in the field. The process would also include academic peer review of the author's work to enhance the possibility of publishing that work.

The initial solicitation for faculty writers was developed in coordination with one of the direct marketing professional associations. This association had an educational division that was concerned with the training and development of those associated with the discipline. The Direct Marketing Association had an Education Foundation and had been working with university faculty to teach them about the field. They had offered Professors Institutes for several years and it was thought that those who attended these sessions would be the logical people to go attract as case writers. These faculty may not have had case writing experience, but they had self-selected as persons interested in the field. This interest on their part was because, at the school with which they were affiliated, they had taken on the responsibilities for teaching database, direct marketing, relationship marketing, media or other related marketing specialties. The specific need filled for them by the case writing program would facilitate their direct marketing teaching activities.

CHALLENGES OF ATTRACTING CASE COMPANIES

The discipline of direct marketing includes several specialties. Therefore, cases could focus on techniques used in these areas as well as the organizations in the varying industries that use these practices. Therefore, there would be many possibilities from which to choose. However, the critical factor in choosing case companies was to find firms willing to participate.

In order to find willing companies, the first approach suggested was to use the network of professionals in the association. This had mixed results. Although some good leads were developed, professionals asking other professionals to open their doors to critical review met with some skepticism. It became clear to those involved in developing the program that company officials had to be persuaded that the case writing was for purely academic ends, and thus a college or university had to be established as the objective entity overseeing the program. Even with this set in place, executives had many questions about trusting the faculty members involved. Since they had not met the case writers, credibility was still a problem and so companies remained hesitant.

Another approach to soliciting company examples involved an industry award program, the Chicago Association of Direct Marketing's Tempo awards. This was an annual event and involved hundreds of companies offering examples of their campaigns in fifteen award categories. The thought here was that these companies had been willing to discuss what they had done in developing a particular campaign, therefore they might be less hesitant to be case sponsors. Direct marketing and advertising agencies were the ones responsible for applying for the Tempo awards, and were motivated by the fact that winning the awards represented excellent promotion and notoriety for the agency. However, upon contacting the agencies to see if their clients would get involved, resistance still remained. Apparently it was one thing to show off what the company did in presenting a direct marketing campaign, and quite another to discuss the strategy development and data that went into developing that campaign. The details and strategies which go into developing a successful campaign are what make the case elements for students to contemplate. Without these details, there would be no case. Obviously, the clients had to be involved in the case development process.

The approach, which continues to evolve, began with finding company employees who were attracted to the responsibility of helping education in their discipline. These were found through many contacts using the above procedures. The appeal to executives involved the following elements:

Confidentiality: Confidentiality agreements were offered to be signed by the case writers and returned to the companies.
Editorial control: Companies were guaranteed that the case would not be published without a release signed by the company official in charge of the project.
Time involvement: The company officials were assured that this would be minimal.
Education: Many times company officials who want to give back to the education community are impressed that numbers of students will be exposed to the company=s methods of doing business.
Public relations: Mentioned here only because it was not found to be a priority (many academicians seem to feel that this type of publicity is an attraction).

FRAMEWORK FOR THE CASE WORKSHOP PROGRAM

First Session: Learn One, Do One!

The first Workshop was conducted at DePaul University's downtown Loop campus in the December, 1995.Twenty eight faculty members attended. They responded to a solicitation from the Direct Marketing Education Foundation's list of attendees of their faculty education programs. Eight firms volunteered to be used for this session and all were solicited by practitioners in the local professional association, the Chicago Association of Direct Marketing Education Foundation.

The first Workshop had ambitious challenges. The program was run over two days and the case writers followed a full agenda. First, there was a half-day session on case writing conducted by a leading case writing author. Then there was a half-day session by practitioners on typical problems and issues facing direct marketers. At the end of the first day, the company cases were assigned to teams of faculty members and any company materials available to the team members were handed out. The remainder of the day was set aside for library time to research the companies before the visits. The next morning the faculty members visited the businesses and organizations in teams of four or five. These visits lasted between 2 to 3 hours. After lunch, the faculty returned to DePaul for a review of what they had learned during their visitations. In essence the Workshop was designed to help the faculty do everything they needed to write a case on a direct marketing situation.

LEARNING ABOUT CASE WRITING

Dr. Kenneth L. Bernhardt, Professor from Georgia State and the co-editor of one of the leading Marketing Management case texts, led the faculty members through the half-day session on writing cases. The faculty members invited to participate in the program came from a marketing or communications background. Few reported having had any case writing experience, so the session on case writing was considered a necessary part of the Workshop program. Dr. Bernhardt guided the participants through many important details of what makes a good case, some of which were: defining what an educational case is, gathering data, conducting interviews, developing credibility with the company personnel, and determining the earmarks of a good case. The response of the attendees was that this session was essential and added greatly to the overall quality of the workshop.

Two important subjects were discussed in this session: author releases and company releases. A considerable amount of planning and resources were provided to undertake the Workshop program. The CADMEF and the DMEF, through DePaul's Direct Marketing Institute, wanted to have the right to show what had been accomplished by publishing the products of the Workshop. In addition, to create incentives for the case writers, the Institute wanted to assist authors in obtaining publication for their case projects. Of course the faculty members would want to pursue publication on their own. Therefore the faculty were asked to sign a nonexclusive agreement, giving publication rights to both the authors and the Institute. The case writers had no objection to this.

The other release deemed necessary for getting full company cooperation was the company release. Case writers were to take these to the company personnel to let them know that they had some control over the material being produced about their company. Some faculty members felt that this was not necessary. However, it was pointed out that these companies were involved in this in a cooperative basis and not giving them the right to sign off on the project could jeopardize future contacts with those companies as well as with others. Exhibit I shows both of these releases.

Finally, the session discussed the judging process. Case writers were advised that they could submit their cases for competitive judging. The faculty agreed that winning the awards was a good motivator to complete the project.

LEARNING ABOUT DIRECT MARKETING

Although the faculty members taught in the marketing or communications fields, their exposure to actual direct marketing was limited. Most had gone through the education sessions offered by the DEF., but those programs taught the techniques and theories of direct marketing. Few had been involved in an actual direct marketing business situation. Some of the practitioners recognized that it might be helpful for the faculty to be immersed in some fundamental issues so that they could conduct better interviews with the company personnel. The approach of the first session was to have guest practitioners talk about cases on which they had worked. Although the session was interesting to most, it was discovered that faculty members are just like students. They don't want to be told about the subject, they wanted to jump in to the company situation right away. The Institute Director and advisors decided that in the future sessions on this would be eliminated and replaced with a short debriefing report, called "Burning Issues" that the faculty could review when convenient. This report was compiled by Ms. Susan K. Jones, Chair of the CADMEF. (See "Burning Issues" in Exhibit II)

REVIEW SESSION: HOW FAR HAVE WE GOTTEN?

To keep faculty members motivated to complete their tasks, a review session was established a few months after the original workshop. The review sessions were again led by Dr. Kenneth Bernhardt. All of the authors had the drafts of each others work so that the sessions focused on Brainstorming the case ideas. Notes were kept to aid the writers who were not able to attend. The output of these sessions was two-fold: 1. Critical advice and guidance was provided for the writers. 2. Peer support was created for the case writers' projects.

These half-day sessions offered an excellent opportunity to demonstrate what the case writers had accomplished in the few months since the first workshop meeting. Academic credibility is an important part of scholarly work. The Institute decided that this would be enhanced by having the review sessions as part of the American Marketing Association Winter Educators Conference. These conferences occurred in February and it was felt that this time was a good mid-point between the original workshop and the competitive submission date, May 1.

Because these sessions were in southern locations, it was felt that these would be attractive to faculty members in February. However, the realities of the priorities placed on case writing again raised its head. Travel money is not plentiful at most universities and travel money for an activity which does not immediately lead to a publication, or at least presentation, is especially limited. Therefore, only a small segment of the writers could come to the review session. However, the motivation to complete the case seemed strong because in all cases, at least one representative of each case team came to the review session.

COMPETITIVE JUDGING - SEARCH FOR THE BEST

The final stage of the workshop program was to submit the completed cases for competitive review. The deadline was May 1, seven months after the original meeting. The first year the judging was based on the cases only, and following that, the teaching materials were requested which was a mistake. The teaching materials took from three months to a year to finally come in. Having learned that lesson, all judging has been done based on receipt of the case, the teaching notes and the author and the company releases.

Often the company release is the most difficult to obtain on time because the case writers underestimate the process companies take to get that done. There are numerous objections that are raised by the executives. The most onerous review is made when the case has to be sent to the legal department. One executive was slow to sign the release but would not immediately tell the reason. It turned out that the name of one of the employees was mentioned and the executive was afraid that employee would have job recruiters calling to offer him employment when they saw his name in print.

The judging was conducted by a panel of academicians and practitioners. These people were chosen by the Institute Director with the aid of Education Foundation board members and volunteers. An evaluation form (see Exhibit III) was created to aid the judges and to provide guidance for authors. The awards were: $1,000 for first place, $750 for second place, and $500 for third place. In addition, the winning case authors received a certificate of award from the Direct Marketing Institute and the two professional associations.

CONCLUSIONS

SUCCESS?

The Case Writing Workshop is one approach to nurturing cases on a particular subject area. In this case there were resources available to make this work. First, within the University, there was an administrative unit, the Direct Marketing Institute, which was dedicated to administering the functions and coordinating faculty and company personnel. Second, the culture in the college was supportive of this activity because the administration recognized case writing as a contribution to scholarly work. This philosophy is not true at all universities. Third, two professional associations, the Chicago Association of Direct Marketing Educational Foundation and the Direct Marketing Educational Foundation, provided expertise and networks of faculty and organizations which have shown support for education in the field of direct marketing. Finally, there were faculty members who were genuinely interested in the general activity of case writing as well as the particular field of direct marketing.

Given the resources applied to this activity, has it been a success? Six high quality educational cases have been produced in completed form. At the time of the latest review session, February, 1998, there were twelve cases which had yet to be reviewed for judging in May, 1998. All of these may not be submitted due to two typical circumstances: inability to get company releases and failure to get teaching notes completed.

The program case status follows:

Completed Cases:
Commerce Clearing House
Direct Response TV at Surety, Inc.
Quill Corporation
Q-Tech (Quill Corporation)
Reliable Corporation
WTTW Television

In-Process:
American Automobile Association
Abacus
Children's Memorial Hospital
Dartnell Corporation
Hallmark
Juvenile Protective Association
Learning Curve Toys
Metromail - International
Metromail - Privacy
National Beef Packers
Red Ball
Sears

A Direct Marketing Case Clearinghouse has been set up at the DePaul's Institute for teachers who would like to use the cases in the classroom. Review copies are sent to teachers for consideration. The Clearinghouse can make copies available to classes at a nominal fee.

In summary, this workshop program has achieved this level of success because it has had five champions working toward the goal of useful educational direct marketing cases:

- An administrative office to conduct project management and overview.
- An academic institution to give the union of case writers with companies credibility. It can provide recognition to the writers and some assurance to the security needs of the organizations.
- One or more professional organizations who can educate company members that the case writing activity is in the industry's best interest.
- Company personnel interested in helping improve the quality of education in the industry.
- Finally, dedicated writers who have an affinity for case writing, come from an academic culture which supports case research and writing, and have found a social congregation which shares a mutual understanding of the challenges of writing cases in the discipline.

In the opinion of the authors, the key characteristic in making this process a success is the faculty writers. The program has developed a team of talented and creative case writers. These writers' ability to make the company personnel feel comfortable about these efforts makes or breaks completion of the final product. The team spirit, developed through working with others on cases with a similar discipline, seems to be a major force in bringing the writers back for new challenges each year.

CHALLENGE OF FUTURE PROGRAMS

The major tasks of the Institute's Workshop are to recruit new companies, retain case writers and keep monitoring and stay in contact with the case writers who are working on projects from the previous workshops. In the authors' opinions, the professional organizations are crucial to supporting this ongoing effort. Without the organizations' network of support, these tasks would be more complicated.

Recognizing this, a case writer or academic organization wanting to try this might find it difficult without such support. Obviously, the first challenge to any case writer who wants to study an organization is, "How to open the door?" A network of contacts to those potential organizations is most useful in this task. Since companies are concerned about proprietary data and confidentiality, a professional organization contact can help create credibility for the case writer.

Thus, if an organization wanted to develop a series of cases on, new businesses in a developing economy, a particular industry or a particular issue across several industries, the professional organizations present an important contact point. If such an organization cannot be identified, or a credible relationship cannot be developed to connect to the organization, then the task becomes more difficult.

The Institute faces a challenge for future programs. So far, the case writers have had their first workshop at DePaul University in Chicago. The case companies were, for the most part, in the Chicago area so that the crucial first meeting could be face-to-face, while the writers were in town, instead of by phone. In the future, due to support from one of the associations, the Workshops will be held in the city where that association's national conference is held. This changes the logistics for case writers and companies. In the fall of 1998, the program will be run in San Francisco. The case writers attracted to the Workshop will be, primarily, new to the program. Also, the Chicago area professionals, relied on before to make company contacts, may not be able to provide as much support. Only time will tell how seriously these two new variables will affect the future of this program.

EXHIBIT 1
EXAMPLES OF CASE RELEASE FORMS

A. *Company Release*

I hereby authorize the use of the____________ Case study written by________for educational purposes including classroom, training session and appropriate publication.

I understand that the case will be protected by copyright and that all product names and trademarks contained in this report are registered properties of ___________________.
Reproduction of any material in this document without written permission is strictly prohibited.

Signed by ______________________ Date ________________________

B. *Writer Release*

I hereby grant permission for DePaul University's Direct Marketing Institute to utilize this case on a non-exclusive basis.

Signed by: __(Writer's Name)________________ Date ___________________

EXHIBIT 2

TO: CASE WRITERS' WORKSHOP ATTENDEES
FROM: SUSAN K. JONES
Trustee, CADM Educational Foundation
SUBJECT: "BURNING ISSUES" IN DIRECT MARKETING
DATE: Fall, 1997

The following "Burning Issues in Direct Marketing" are from the practitioner point of view. It is our hope that this list will provide you with food for thought as you prepare for your experience at the Workshop and with your case client. It was compiled from the contributions of CADM Educational Foundation Trustees and other leaders of the Chicago Association of Direct Marketing. I will be presenting highlights of this list at the Workshop. If you have any questions or concerns about these issues before then, please don't hesitate to e-mail me at the following address:
Susan_jones@ferris.edu. I'll see you in Chicago!

ISSUE #1 – PRIVACY

Detailed comments and examples excluded for space considerations of this paper.

ISSUE #2 – RELATIONSHIP MARKETING AND CUSTOMER LOYALTY

Detailed comments and examples excluded for space considerations of this paper.

ISSUE #3 – POSTAL CONCERNS

Detailed comments and examples excluded for space considerations of this paper.

ISSUE #4 – RESPONSE-RELATED ISSUES

Detailed comments and examples excluded for space considerations of this paper.

ISSUE #5 – TELEMARKETING CONCERNS

Detailed comments and examples excluded for space considerations of this paper.

ISSUE #6 – ON-LINE PROBLEMS AND OPPORTUNITIES

Detailed comments and examples excluded for space considerations of this paper.

ISSUE #7 – DIRECT MARKETING COMPANIES V.S. USING DIRECT MARKETING TACTICS

Detailed comments and examples excluded for space considerations of this paper.

ISSUE #8 – DEREGULATED INDUSTRIES AND DIRECT MARKETING

Detailed comments and examples excluded for space considerations of this paper.

ISSUE #9 – THE DIVERSE MARKETPLACE

Detailed comments and examples excluded for space considerations of this paper.

ISSUE #10 – THE IMAGE OF THE DIRECT MARKETING FIELD

Detailed comments and examples excluded for space considerations of this paper.

EXHIBIT 3
DIRECT MARKETING CASE EVALUATION FORM

We would appreciate your willingness to provide comments and evaluation of the latest group of cases from our **Direct Marketing Case Writer's Workshop**. Please mark the scales below for each of the cases we have sent to you. Your written comments are also very useful to the authors so please give attention to these:

Evaluator #__________
Case Letter(circle): A B C D E

---

1. Level of interest to students:
   High ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ Low

2. The issues in the case are clear:
   Clear ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ Unclear

3. The strength of the direct marketing issue(s) involved in the case:
   Strong ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ Weak

4. Quality of the writing:
High ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ Low

5. Completeness of case details and information to resolve the issues:
Complete____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ Incomplete

6. The case is decision-oriented, rather than just descriptive:
High ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ Low
Decision Orientation Decision Orientation

7. The teaching notes are clear and applicable (if included)
High ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ Low

8. What are the strengths of the case? (Continue on back or add other pages):

____

____

9. What improvements would you suggest? (Continue on back or add other pages):

____

____

Return form and case with margin comments to: Dr. Steven Kelly, Direct Marketing Institute, DePaul University, 1 East Jackson Blvd., Chicago, IL, 60604. Contact at 312-362-8130, skelly@wppost.depaul.edu.

CHAPTER EIGHT

EMERGING MARKET ECONOMIES: MEETING THE MARKETING CHALLENGES OF NATIONS IN TRANSITION

Spero C. Peppas
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Abstract

For many nations, the move from a command to a market-directed economy through the "privatization" of public and quasi-public activities has resulted in certain negative effects. In an effort to reduce these effects and to aid in re-establishing macro-economic equilibrium, governments of some of these nations have realized the need to aid in the development of small and medium sized businesses in their primary, secondary, and tertiary sectors. Some of these countries have, with varying degrees of success, turned to international organizations to help in funding these projects. This paper sets forth specific recommendations to aid governments of nations making the command to market-directed economy transition.

INTRODUCTION

For many nations, the move from a command to a market-directed economy through the "privatization" of public and quasi-public activities has, in the short run at least, resulted in certain negative effects. In an effort to reduce these effects and to aid in re-establishing macro-economic equilibrium, governments of some of these nations have realized the need to aid in the development of small and medium sized businesses (SME's) in their primary, secondary, and tertiary sectors. Some of these countries have, with varying degrees of success, turned to international organizations to help in funding these projects. However, how to best use these funds is still often problematic, even for the most well intentioned.

Basic to the success of all such development programs and, in fact, to successful economic transition from a command orientation, is the need to develop a "marketing mind-set" within the country. That is, the newly established private sector as well as the "new" public sector must fully grasp that marketing can indeed serve as a catalyst in the nation's economic development process and that the focus of business activity should now be on finding new and better ways to satisfy consumer needs. Further, business owners must be apprised of the basic underpinnings of marketing theory and have a basic understanding of the operational techniques arising from these concepts [Silberman, et al, 1994].

PROBLEMS AND CONSTRAINTS

There appear to be certain considerations common to nations making the command to market economy transition.

- A production/selling orientation as opposed to a consumer/marketing orientation exists.

- Often, there is a negative perception of marketing in general. There is often a belief that if a product has to be promoted, it must not be good.

In addition to the above considerations, there are usually additional obstacles to the effective and efficient functioning of the marketing process. In general:

- Published information is usually inadequate. Often, data does not exist at all or when available, it may not be current, accurate, or sufficient. There is often no match between the categorical classifications in the published data and those needed by the organization wishing to use the information to make marketing decisions.
- Gathering primary data is difficult because of demographic, socio-cultural, and technological factors (for example, low literacy rates, "group" personality and an unclear concept of opinion, and general distrust of information gatherers. Sampling frames are often non-existent or inaccurate.

More specifically:

- There is a lack of information on which to base target market decisions (market size - current and projected, demographics, psychographics, product usage rates);
- There is a lack of information on which to base product decisions (what products should be produced to satisfy consumers' physical and psychological needs; what color, size, quality, etc., is most appropriate; how to best differentiate competing products);
- There is a lack of information on which to base appropriate pricing strategies (price sensitivity of demand, consumer perceptions of quality/price relationships);
- There is a lack of information regarding appropriate distribution strategies (what intermediaries exist, their location, logistical considerations);
- There is a lack of information on which to base promotional strategies (what are readerships, viewing and listening habits; what are attitudes toward advertising, packaging, and other promotional tools);
- There is a lack of information and/or a difficulty in assessing information regarding the competitive, legal, economic, and socio-cultural environments.

OVERCOMING THE PROBLEMS

The following paragraphs set forth specific recommendations to aid policy makers of nations making the command to market-directed economy transition. The approach suggested by this author focuses on ways to help create SME's, which play an important role in the process of transition [Forst, 1996], as well as on means of helping owners/managers of newly established SME's develop a marketing mind-set and incorporate sound marketing practices into their everyday operations [Czinkota, 1997].

To this end the following projects should be undertaken:

- the formation of a public or quasi-public agency to aid in the creation, survival, and growth of small and medium sized businesses
- the establishment of a Marketing Department within the agency to develop and operate a market information system and to create and deliver a marketing information bulletin
- the development and delivery of training programs.

FORMATION OF AN AGENCY

With the objective of stimulating the economy and creating jobs in the primary, secondary, and tertiary sectors, a public or quasi-public agency, or incubator "without walls," should be created to help in the development of financially sound and viable small and medium sized businesses [Forst, 1996].

Funding and support for the agency could be obtained through international organizations, national and local governments, as well as private sources [see Wilson, 1992]. A primary goal of this agency should be the identification and evaluation of potential entrepreneurs who will create small and medium sized businesses and who will be allowed to take advantage of the agency's offerings. Individual entrepreneurs, selected on the basis of their motivation, aptitude, and entrepreneurial spirit to be a part of an Entrepreneurial Program sponsored by the agency, should be aided in conducting feasibility studies for their project ideas and in obtaining initial funding for their enterprises.

A further goal of the agency should be to help develop a marketing mind-set among the participants of the Entrepreneurial Program and to help participants incorporate sound marketing practices into their operations. To accomplish these tasks the agency must have 1) an organizational structure for carrying out these functions, and 2) data/information [see Rondinelli and Yurkiewicz, 1996].

In developed market-directed economies, business owners/managers usually have at their disposal what is necessary to incorporate marketing techniques into their daily operations. All that is sometimes lacking is a marketing mind-set. For nations in transition, however, even if the mind-set exists, the aforementioned problems and constraints make the implementation of marketing practices more difficult. While, ideally, each business should have someone in charge of the marketing task, it is difficult and perhaps inefficient for each enterprise to attempt to generate the appropriate information needed to formulate its marketing strategy. However, these same businesses would be greatly aided in the carrying out of their business activities through additional marketing information.

Therefore, it is recommended that a Marketing Department, as a part of the newly established agency, be created to serve as an interface between the market and the SME's in the Entrepreneurial Program.

THE MARKETING DEPARTMENT

The Marketing Department should have as its major task the operation of a Marketing Information System. The Department would operate at both the micro and macro levels. At a micro level, the Department would engage in activities to discover market needs and how those needs could be met by present and future SME's.

The Marketing Department should help newly established SME's of the Entrepreneurial Program differentiate their products and services from those of competition. It is important to increase secondary demand (demand for products of particular producers, in this case, the products of the SME's of the Program). To this end, it is recommended that a logo be developed to be used by the SME's of the Entrepreneurial Program as a label to distinguish their output..

At the macro level, the Department would serve as an information-generating and feedback source for governmental planning in business development and employment programs and in the creation of SME's for which there is a need and which fit into the overall development scheme for the country. That is, the Department would provide information regarding products and services for which there is a need in the marketing sense. This information should be used in the Entrepreneurial Program in the SMB selection process and by appropriate government agencies to help generate employment.

THE MARKETING INFORMATION SYSTEM

To accomplish its micro and macro objectives, the Department should operate, as a primary function, a Marketing Information System. A marketing information system is defined in this context as an ongoing and future-directed structure of people, equipment, and procedures to generate, analyze, disseminate, store, and retrieve information for use in making marketing decisions [Stanton, et al, 1991]. The Information System should be primarily involved in conducting research, future-oriented (anticipating as well as solving problems), and operated on a continuing basis.

Conducting Research (The Research Process)

Research in this sense refers to the gathering of any information to help make marketing decisions. The information could pertain to any of the problem areas or constraints discussed above. The research can be considered as: a) exploratory (to generate hypotheses), b) descriptive (to discover and describe states of nature), or c) causal (to set up cause and effect relationships). Diagram 1 depicts a suggested flow-chart of the way in which marketing research should be conducted by the Department.

STEP 1 involves deciding upon the problem to be investigated. In exploratory research, the emphasis is on the identification of problems, whereas in descriptive and causal research the emphasis is on describing a situation that exists and testing cause and effect relationships, respectively. Care must be taken to describe the problem itself and not simply a symptom of the problem.

STEP 2 entails generating hypotheses, which are testable and identifying confounding variables - those things which could interfere in the testing of the hypotheses. Generally speaking, confounding variables must be controlled for, either experimentally or statistically. Appropriate questionnaire design and interviewing techniques must also be used to minimize error.

STEP 3 suggests that if appropriate secondary data is available, it should be used in lieu of primary date as secondary data is quicker, less expensive, and easier to access than primary data. However, due to the informational vacuum common in former command economies, the Marketing Department would, to a great degree, be involved with the gathering of primary data through survey, observation, and experimental techniques.

In the collection of primary data, STEP 4, a research design must be formulated, detailing a step-by-step approach in terms of how the data will be gathered. General points to be included are:

a) What is the population or group of interest?
b) Will a census or a sample be used? Usually some representative subset of a population is contacted. "Representative" is a key term and various sampling techniques exist to ensure representativeness. In view of some of the constraining variables, however, it may not be possible for the Marketing Department to draw a perfect sample. Nonetheless, research based on sampling is essential and less-than-perfect samples are better than no samples at all. Where probability sampling is not possible, non-probability sampling, including convenience samples, should be employed. Non-response may especially be a problem. Personal interviews, while costly in terms of time and money, may need to be employed to help reduce the non-response rate. In addition, monetary and non-monetary incentives may be used to encourage respondent participation.
c) How will the data of interest be measured? It is preferable, in terms of accuracy of responses, to seek demographic data through categorical responses. In the measurement of psychographic characteristics (attitudes, interests, etc.), appropriate semantic differentials should be utilized.

In STEP 5, the researcher must decide on the appropriate method(s) for analyzing the data. Two basic techniques may be used: statistical (descriptive and inferential) and modeling. It is essential that the Marketing Department be able to quantitatively, as well as qualitatively, analyze data. The Marketing Department must have at its disposal quantitative analytic capability in the form of computer hardware and software and human resources. In terms of the human component, it is suggested that the Department employ local talent with a strong marketing background and experience in the ways in which research and marketing are conducted in the developed world but who are able to adapt techniques and procedures to local conditions [see, for example, Scott, 1997].

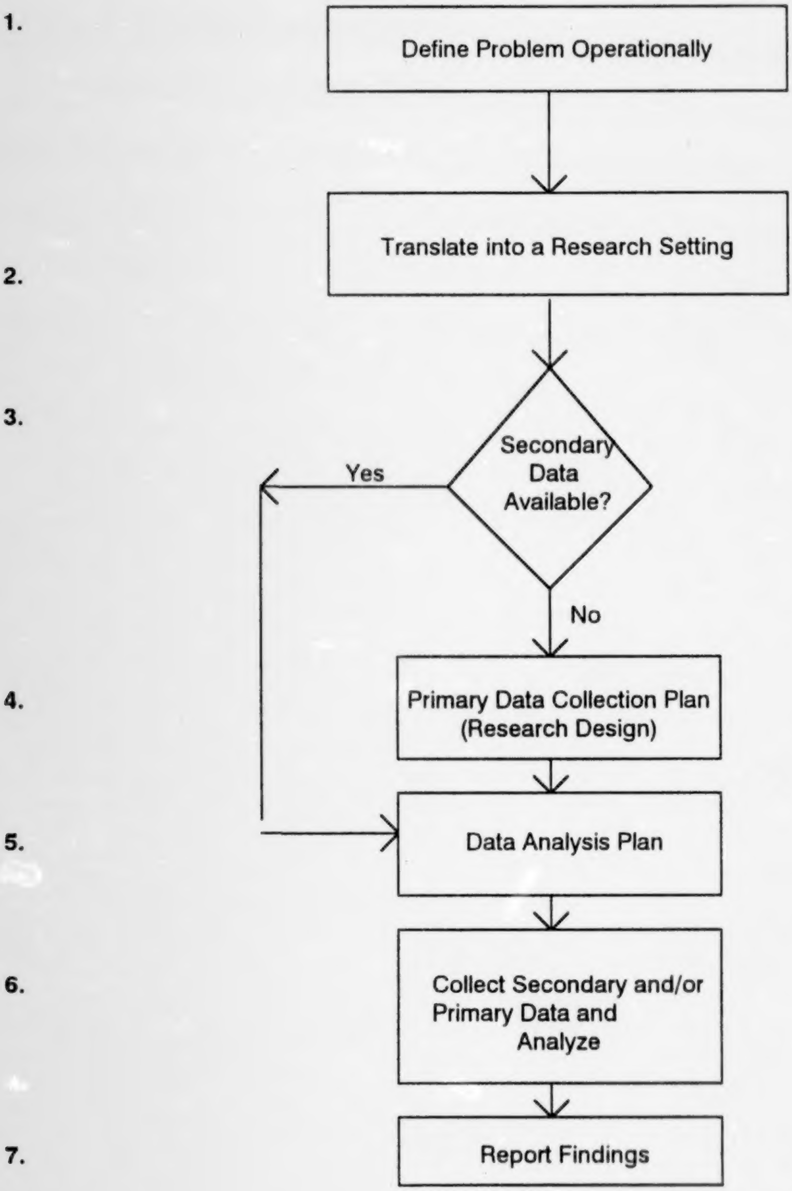
Following Steps 1 - 5 will result in the formulation of a marketing plan. Neither the research nor the analysis has been implemented.

STEP 6 then involves the actual gathering and analysis of the data. It is important that the data be gathered and analyzed according to the plan.

STEP 7 involves the writing of the research report which should include problem statement and hypotheses to be tested (if any), data sources including research design in the case of primary data collection, methods of analysis used, findings, any problems encountered or shortcomings of the research, and suggestions for future research.

The approach outlined above is applicable in most all research situations. It is recommended that the Marketing Department use the outlined approach whenever research is to be conducted and to quantify as much as possible all aspects of the research project.

DIAGRAM 1
THE RESEARCH PROCESS


1.
Define Problem Operationally
Translate into a Research Setting
2.
3.
Secondary Data Available?
Yes
No
4.
Primary Data Collection Plan (Research Design)
5.
Data Analysis Plan
6.
Collect Secondary and/or Primary Data and Analyze
7.
Report Findings

Source: Adapted from Bovée, C., M. Houston, and J. Thill, Marketing (McGraw-Hill, 1995) and Tull, D. and D. Hawkins, Marketing Research (Macmillan, 1993).

MARKETING INFORMATION SYSTEM MODEL

Marketing research is a part of the Marketing Information System (MkIS) and it is the ongoing research which builds the basis for the system and which allows it to be future-oriented. The Department's MkIS could take the form outlined in Diagram 2 which shows the position of marketing research and which flow-charts the direction of the system. Discussion of a few points will clarify the diagram.

Display Unit

A method must exist whereby the individuals responsible for making marketing decisions may convey their information needs to the Marketing Department and the Department can convey information generated by the system back to the individuals making the request. Practical approaches to this end will be suggested below. In addition, the Department will need to treat information requests and subsequent research on some prioritized basis. Criteria used to prioritize should be included in the short- and long-range planning of the Department.

Research Or Purchase

Research has been discussed above. It is imperative that the Marketing Department employ individuals possessing research skills so that they may conduct needed research. The purchase option would entail the purchase of information generated by individuals or organizations outside the Department. However, it is important that indigenous research skills and appreciation for research techniques and their application be developed. For nations in transition, the acquisition of technology in the form of know-how is critical in terms of economic development. Marketing plays a crucial role in the development process and the application of research know-how has far-reaching implications.

Data Bank

The MkIS should include the means for storage and retrieval of data. A computerized system will ensure that data may be stored and retrieved effectively and efficiently. The Department should subscribe to relevant data sources so that the Data Bank will have this secondary data at its disposal. In addition, it should synthesize this data through its analytical bank (see below) so that additional information can be extracted.

Analytical Bank and Information Storage

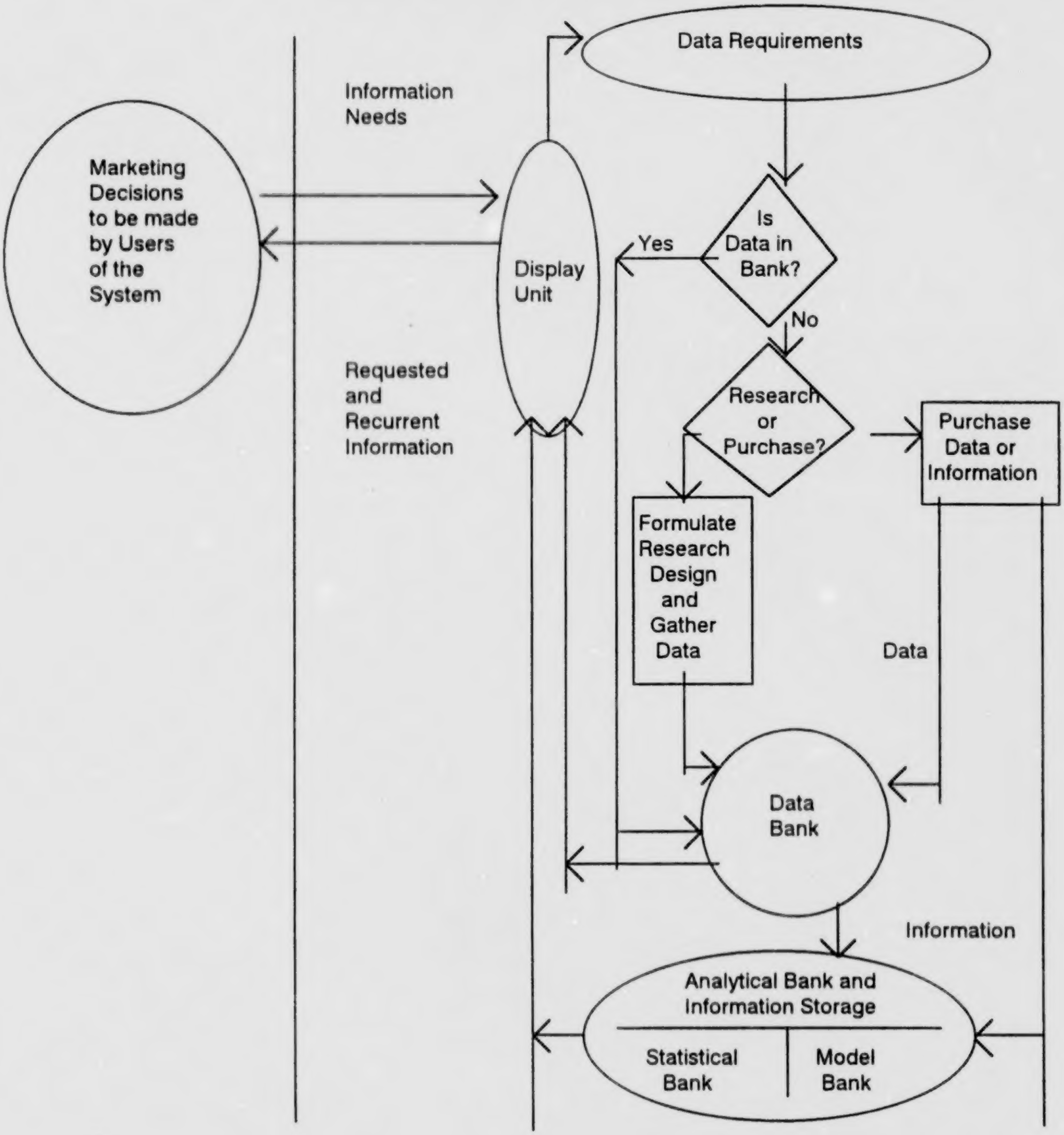
This component of the system should contain the statistical and analytical tools for analyzing data and should provide for the storage of information generated by the system. A variety of software packages exist which would provide for a range of statistical and modeling analyses and which would serve the Department's needs adequately.

The Marketing Department should process two kinds of information:

a) requested information - the information that is generated to answer questions and solve problems posed by those making marketing decisions; and
b) recurrent information - the information that is gathered as a matter of course and repeatedly regarding any matter (including constraining and problem variables) which may affect the activities of those using the system.

The Marketing Department should survey the users of the system to discover what kinds of information would be most useful to them (e.g., imports of a given commodity by month or sales of a given commodity by market by month). The Department should aggregate or desegregate the data to a level appropriate to the problems at hand. Also, the Department should gather information directly from the market regarding attitudes toward, problems with, and reactions to products and services marketed in the nation and in particular by the SME's on the Entrepreneurial Program. The result of such research should lead to the generation of new ideas and/or improvements in terms of products, prices, distribution, and promotion within the country. This kind of recurrent information could be collected, in terms of the industrial and consumer markets, via ongoing panels. The Marketing Department should form separate industrial and consumer panels of 8 - 12 persons each, which would convene at regular intervals and, through a trained moderator, discuss the above-mentioned issues. The moderator(s) should be trained in the techniques of panel research and be sensitive to the characteristics of the panel members. The Marketing Department would report the information generated in this bank through the DISPLAY UNIT to those involved in marketing decision-making. Information gathered through recurrent research should be disseminated on an ongoing basis to all those using the system, through a Marketing Information Bulletin, available hard copy and on-line.

DIAGRAM 2
MARKETING INFORMATION SYSTEM MODEL


Data Requirements
Information Needs
Marketing Decisions to be made by Users of the System
Display Unit
Is Data in Bank?
Yes
No
Requested and Recurrent Information
Research or Purchase?
Purchase Data or Information
Formulate Research Design and Gather Data
Data
Data Bank
Information
Analytical Bank and Information Storage
Statistical Bank
Model Bank

Source: Adapted from Perreault, W., Jr., and E. J. McCarthy, Essentials of Marketing: A Global Managerial Approach (Irwin, 1997) and Stanton, W., M. Etzel, and B. Walker, Fundamentals of Marketing (McGraw-Hill, 1994)

THE MARKETING INFORMATION BULLETIN

The diffusion of information to the users of the MkIS should occur through a weekly or biweekly Marketing Information Bulletin. In addition to the basic purpose above, the Bulletin should serve as an educational tool, in terms of marketing, for its readers. Some or all of the following features could be included in the Bulletin.

The Business Environment

This section could include topics from some or all of the following areas:

a) Political and Legal News - including interviews with government officials, changes in laws/regulations which would have an impact on SMB activity, other legal information of interest to readers (such as, price ceilings or floors, the political posture of government toward different sectors of industry);
b) Economic Conditions - including information about interest rates, loan availability, changes in GNP/GDP, average commodity prices, etc.;
c) The Resource Market - including shortages/surpluses, new technologies, etc.;
d) Today's Societies - including cultural and sub-cultural characteristics of the market which would help SME's select target markets. Also included could be statistics on population trends, attitudes toward work, patterns in terms of family decision-making, etc.;
e) The Competitive Arena - including the number and regional distribution of firms producing different goods and services, size distribution (number of employees, sales volume), etc.;
f) Getting Around the Nation - including changes in infrastructure (transportation, communication, utilities), meteorological conditions and predictions of interest to the agricultural/ fishing communities, etc.

Research Facts

This section could report the findings of research initiated by the Marketing Department, for example, findings from the industrial and consumer panels, attitude studies, etc., and the findings of non-confidential requested research. This should be a major section of the Bulletin and should provide the basis for keeping the SME's informed regarding the changing needs of the market.

Better Business

The third section of the Bulletin should serve in educational role and attempt to develop an appreciation of marketing which should help the reader develop a marketing mind-set. In addition, this section could serve to educate the reader in any of the functional areas of business. It could carry information and suggestions ranging from explanations of the marketing concept, promotional techniques, logistical considerations, to practical methods of inventory control, motivation and leadership techniques, etc. Included in this section could be a series of articles teaching the SME's how to conduct simple marketing research on their own.

Spotlight

The intent of the fourth section could be to lend a personal and human touch to the Bulletin. This should increase readership and could take the form of an interview with one of the present or potential users of the MkIS. Especially at the beginning, the Department should try to interview and otherwise elicit the general support of opinion leaders in the community at large. This would have a two-fold purpose. First, the information given in an interview with opinion leaders would be viewed as credible by the general public and, as a result, should lend credibility to the Department and its work. Second, if the general support of the opinion leaders is obtained, they will communicate the value of the system through word of mouth to other users and potential users.

The Marketing Information Bulletin should be professional in its execution and written in a style commensurate with the general level of its readers. The Bulletin should be a critical tool in communicating with the SME's and others and should serve to keep them abreast of changes in the environment and/or markets. The Bulletin should be provided free-of-charge to the SME's of the Entrepreneurial Program.

TRAINING

The agency should also provide training opportunities for the participants of the Entrepreneurial Program, and depending on resources, perhaps to other interested parties as well. Local talent could be used to provide the training sessions and/or arrangements could be made with universities and international management training firms outside the country. The training should provide practical information on business practices in market-directed economies [Scott, 1997]. This should contribute to the continued success of the SME's. Training directly related to marketing could be carried out by the Marketing Department as one of its duties.

ACTIVITIES AND CONCLUSION

Recommendations have appeared throughout this paper. The purpose of this section is to set forth specific activities which should be used as a part of the agency's project management process.

ACTIVITY ONE: A Marketing Department should be created in accordance with the suggestions given in this paper. It should be staffed by nationals with training in marketing and marketing research and who have an appreciation for the culture and sub-cultures of the nation. These individuals should be supported, where necessary, through additional education and training.

ACTIVITY TWO: The Department should conceive and execute a logo and label which would differentiate the products of the SME's of the Entrepreneurial Program from those of competition. This should lead to two benefits - those derived from "family" branding and those resulting from the group spirit which would be created among the SME's. As a word of caution: it is important that the quality/price relationship of the goods and services offered by the SME's be high and consistent, as a negative halo could result from family branding as easily as a positive one.

ACTIVITY THREE: A Marketing Information System, as outlined above, should be put into operation as soon as possible by the Marketing Department. Appropriate hardware and software should be acquired and members of the Department should receive training in the use of these materials. Consumer and industrial panels should be formulated as suggested. The data gathered should be analyzed by the Department and the resulting information made available or otherwise disseminated to the users of the system. The Department should use the panels for both snapshot and longitudinal studies. This information would provide direction and feedback to the SME's of the Entrepreneurial Program. The Department should initiate the collection of secondary and primary data pertinent to upcoming entrepreneurial projects.

ACTIVITY FOUR: A Marketing Information Bulletin, as outlined above, should be created on a weekly or biweekly basis and made available to users of the system.

ACTIVITY FIVE: General business training should be an offering of the agency. A marketing educational program should be developed by the Department and offered to the SME's and other users of the MkIS to develop an appreciation of the role of marketing in business and to aid in decision making. Some of this information could be incorporated into the Bulletin.

The recommendations intended to aid policy makers of nations making the command to market economy transition which have been advanced in this paper will not be easy to implement given the constraints that exist. It should be recognized that the process will require considerable time and effort. However, an action plan is critical as nations in transition have at stake their continued economic growth and development.

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THE FOREIGN CORRUPT PRACTICES ACT: THE ANTI-BRIBERY PROVISIONS

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Abstract

This paper deals with the antibribery provisions of the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act (FCPA) of 1977. he FCPA has international ramifications because it applies to most companies registered on national U.S. stock exchanges. he FCPA makes it illegal for any representative of a registered company to offer bribes to officials of foreign countries for the purpose of exerting influence and obtaining or retaining business. This paper examines various aspects of the FCPA including enforcement and penalties, criticisms of the antibribery provisions, and other legal ramifications. A major objective of this paper is to develop a better understanding of the major antibribery provisions of the FCPA and how they apply in international business.

INTRODUCTION

In 1977, the U.S. Congress passed legislation known as the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act (FCPA). The FCPA is divided into two sections, the antibribery provisions under which the FCPA was named and the accounting standards provisions. This paper deals with the antibribery provisions that make it illegal to offer bribes to officials of foreign countries for the purpose of exerting influence and obtaining or retaining business.

The history of the FCPA begins with an investigation by the Office of the Special Prosecutor into illegal domestic political campaign contributions associated with the Watergate scandal. The role of the Special Prosecutor was to determine whether the provisions of 18 U.S.C. #602 of the Federal Criminal Code had been violated by certain contributions. The Special Prosecutor investigated a number of campaign contributions by American corporations and traced them to secret corporate "slush" funds deposited in foreign banks. These contributions constituted illegal unreported political donations from American corporations to the Committee to Reelect the President [Dardess, 1979; Timmeny, 1982]. The Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) was alerted to the existence of such "slush" funds by the Special Prosecutor's Office and immediately launched a voluntary disclosure program which provided evidence of significant illegal acts perpetrated by U.S. companies overseas [Ricchiute, 1992].

Title I of the FCPA (Public Law 95-213) makes it illegal for reporting firms and "domestic concerns" to bribe foreign government officials, political parties, or candidates for certain specific corrupt purposes. The FCPA has been controversial since its passage and has been criticized for lack of pragmatism, poor understanding of foreign mores, and deterring U.S. competitiveness abroad. The U.S. Congress, by enacting the FCPA, is perceived to have operated with naivete and lack of understanding of cultural, political, and legal environments around the world.

This paper examines various aspects of the FCPA. The objective is to inform mangers of the antibribery provisions and legal issues and cases so they can structure their transactions and conduct their international business in compliance with the FCPA legislation. Specific topics discussed include the enforcement and penalties provisions, antibribery provisions, the "reason to know" standard, and legal ramifications.

ENFORCEMENT AND PENALTIES PROVISIONS

The antibribery provisions of the FCPA apply to companies registered on a U.S. national stock exchange under the 1934 SEC Act with at least $1 million in assets and five hundred or more shareholders. To violate the FCPA, an SEC-registered company, including its directors, officers, employees or agents, must have used interstate commerce in furtherance of an offer or promise to give "anything of value" with the intention of corruptly influencing a transaction. Section 30A of the FCPA makes it unlawful for securities registrants:

To make use of the mails or any means or instrumentality of interstate commerce corruptly in furtherance of an offer, payment, promise to pay, or authorization of the payment of any money, or offer, gift, promise to give or authorization of the giving of anything of value to:

1. Any foreign official for the purpose of (A) influencing any act or decision of such foreign officials in his official capacity, including a decision to fail to perform official functions; or (B) inducing such foreign official to use his influence with a foreign government or instrumentality thereof to effect or influence any act or decision of such government or instrumentality, in order to assist such issuer in obtaining or retaining for or with, directing business to any person.
2. Any foreign political party or official thereof, or any candidate for a foreign office.
3. Any person, while knowing or having reason to know that all or portion of such money or thing of value will be offered, given, or promised, directly or indirectly, to any foreign official, to any foreign political party or official thereof, or to any candidate for foreign political office.

Section 30A(b) of the Exchange Act defines "foreign official" as any "officer or employee of a foreign government or any department, agency, or instrumentality thereof, or any person acting in an official capacity for or on behalf of such government or department, agency, or instrumentality. Such term does not include any employee of a foreign government or any department, agency, or instrumentality thereof whose duties are essential ministerial or clerical. The statute also indicated that a "jurisdictional means" had to be used in order to violate the Act. The jurisdictional means were defined as "mails or other instrumentality" that were used in furtherance of the payment [Timmeny, 1982].

Section 32 of the Securities Exchange Act of 1934, 15 U.S.C. 78(f), was amended by adding the following penalties for violating the FCPA rules:

1. Any issuer which violates section 30(A) of this title shall, upon conviction, be fined no more than $1,000,000.
2. Any officer or director of an issuer, or any stockholder acting on behalf of such issuer, who willfully violates section 30(A) of this title shall, upon conviction, be fined no more that $10,000, or imprisonment not more than five years, or both.
3. Whenever an issuer is found to have violated section 30(A) of this title, any employee or agent of such issuer who is United States citizen, national, or resident or is otherwise subject to the jurisdiction of the United States (other than an officer, director, or stockholder of such issuer), and who willfully carried out the act or practice constituting such violation shall, upon conviction, be fined not more than $10,000, or imprisoned not more than $10,000, or imprisoned not more than five years, or both.

The FCPA states that fines imposed on officers or directors shall not be paid by the corporation:

Whenever a fine is imposed under paragraph (2) of this subsection upon any officer, director, stockholder, employee, or agent of an issuer, such fine shall not be paid, directly or indirectly, by such issuer.

An attempt was made by the House subcommittee's chairman to draw a distinction between prohibited bribes and permitted payments to foreign officials to facilitate a transaction:

> I think what we are really trying to get at is the question of what constitutes a mere greasing of operations, a mere facilitation of the normal processes of the other government, and what constitutes a pressure or a bribe to influence a decision corruptly [Baruch, 1979].

Michael W. Reisman [1979] divides the bribes in three categories:

1. Transactions bribes or "grease payments" those made to officials of foreign governments
2. Variance bribes or payments made to an official to secure the suspension of a legal norm
3. Outright purchase bribes such as a payment or gift to a government official to obtain a government contract [Shaw, 1988; Pitman and Sanford, 1994]. In a outright purchase bribe, the objective is not to secure the performance of a particular act but rather "to acquire an employee who remains in place in an organization to which he appears to pay full loyalty while actually favoring the briber's conflicting interests [Porrata-Doria, 1985].

McLaughlin [1978] believes that the Congress intended to distinguish between outright bribe which causes an official "to exercise other than his free will in acting or in making a decision" and the so-called "facilitating" or "grease payments." Also, critics of the FCPA argue that the FCPA's antibribery provisions fail to clarify between bribery and payments resulting from an extortion by governmental officials.

THE ANTIBRIBERY PROVISIONS

The FCPA gives both the SEC and the Department of Justice the authority to enforce the antibribery provisions. Under section 103 of the FCPA, the SEC has civil enforcement authority over violations by issuers or persons related to issuers; whereas, section 104 gives the Department of Justice civil and criminal enforcement authority over domestic concerns.

At the Senate hearings, some legislators argued against the criminalization imposed by the FCPA and felt that it would unduly burden United States corporations in competition with foreign companies that engage in bribery [Gobel 1981]. The criminalization section of the FCPA was also opposed by J. Jefferson Staats of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States and by Robert B. Von Mehren, Chairperson of the Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Payment of the Bar of the City of New York. They felt that:

- extraterritorial application of criminal laws raises questions of due process and fairness;
- enforcement of the law would be difficult; and
- cooperation of foreign governments would be required to prosecute a crime done abroad [Morgan, 1979].

Elliot Richardson, Chairman of the Presidential Task Force on Questionable Corporate Abroad, rejected the notion of criminalization:

> The Task Force has concluded however that the criminalization approach would represent little more than a policy assertion, for the enforcement of such a law would be very difficult if not impossible... The Task Force has concluded that unless reasonable enforceable criminal sanctions were devised, the criminal approach would represent poor public policy [O'Neill, 1979; Longobardi, 1987].

Other legislators viewed criminalization as a greater deterrent than disclosure. They felt that the threat of a civil penalty alone would lead businessmen to ignore the disclosure requirement and that the criminalization of illicit payments overseas was the wiser approach. Proponents of the criminalization provision also believed that it was necessary to "emphasize the national policy" against foreign bribery [Greanias & Windsor 1982].

The antibribery provisions have also been criticized for being extremely vague and ambiguous; and for not clarifying several key terms such as "corruptly," "foreign official," and "knowing or having reason to know standard" [Longobardi 1987].

THE "REASON TO KNOW" STANDARD

Dealing with consultants or agents overseas has been difficult because the FCPA stresses that it constitutes an unlawful act if ". . . any other person where the reporting company knows, or has the reason to know, that all, or portion of such money or thing of value will be offered, given, or promised, directly or indirectly, to any person in the above mentioned group" [Timmeny, 1982, emphasis added]. There is no wording in the congressional report explaining what Congress meant by the clause "having reason to know." Former SEC Chairman R. Hills said that, "You do not have the right to close your eyes when you drop off a large payment" [Baruch, 1979].

The "knowing or having the reason to know" standard presents the most concern to U.S. corporations because similar terminology is not used in domestic bribery statutes [Baden & Shaw, 1983]. The FCPA holds domestic corporations liable for acts of their agents overseas "without giving any guidance as to the extent to which corporations should investigate their agents" [Longobardi, 1987]. The "reason to know" standard has also been criticized for:

- being unreasonable because it places the burden of proof on the accused to establish the absence of a "reason to know" that a transaction was in violation of the act; and
- the standard could be used to find a corporate principal liable for contact of an independent agent who acted on his or her own to violate the FCPA [Porrata-Doria, 1985].

The "reason to know" standard has been interpreted and defined in may ways by different courts. In United States v. Sweet Briar Inc. (1950), a person has "reason to know" a fact "when he has such information as would lead a person exercising reasonable care to acquire knowledge of the fact in a question or infer its existence."

In Von Gohren v. Pacific National Bank (1973), the "reason to know" standard has been held to exist when "suspicious characteristics of the transaction may give an individual reason to suspect something wrong."

In SEC v. Coffey (1974), the court established that corporate accountability can be established through secondary liability when the parties, although they do not directly participate in the bribe, but "knowingly and substantially" assist in it while knowing of its impropriety." Therefore, payments made when the company "knows or has reason to know" that the money will be used by that agent to make a bribe are considered illegal.

In Colin v. Central Penn National Bank (1975), the "reason to know" standard has been defined as "a function of a person's knowledge" and what "a reasonable man would conclude from that knowledge."

In Rochfelder v. Ernst & Ernst (1976), the Supreme Court raised the issue of "knowing misrepresentation." It held that in order to sue for damages under Rule 10b-5, the defendant must be proven to have "knowingly and willfully" misrepresented the report. Subsequent to this case, the AICPA in April 1988 issued SAS No. 53, The Auditor's Responsibilities to Detect and Report Errors and Irregularities. This standard extended auditors responsibility by requiring the auditor to "design the audit to provide reasonable assurance" of detecting errors and irregularities that are material to the financial statements.

In the late 1980s, Young & Rubicon, a multinational advertising firm, was indicted for violating the FCPA. The government asserted that the company "had reason to know" that one of its agent was paying off the Jamaican Minister of Tourism to obtain advertising business. Young & Rubicon reached an out-of-court settlement by paying a $500,000 penalty to avoid further litigation [Singer, 1991].

In the case of United States v. Carpenter (1986), the Department of Justice charged the defendant Harry Carpenter with making a payment to a third party while knowing that the third party would use the commission to bribe foreign officials [Longobardi, 1987].

When a federal grand jury in Georgia indicted Lockheed Company and two of its officers for conspiracy to violate the FCPA, the prosecutors argued that it was Lockeed's intent, not the recipient's actions, that mattered, and that one indication of corrupt intent were the circumstances surrounding the commission payment. A prosecutor has to prove that the company or its officials have an intention to do business by paying a foreign official even if the offer did not succeed [Ayres, 1996]. Ayres warns that a firm can have imputed liability for the foreign company's acts if it knows about them. Simply put, a company cannot take a "head in the sand" approach to avoid such knowledge.

LEGAL RAMIFICATIONS OF THE FCPA

The legal ramifications of the FCPA will be discussed with regard to the American statues enacted on bribery, the difference between bribery and extortion, and other legal issues.

AMERICAN STATUTES ON BRIBERY

Without taking into consideration the political climate from which the FCPA was born, opponents of the FCPA argue that its enactment was unnecessary. They point out that U.S. law enforcement agencies already had at their disposal many statutes that could be applied to overseas illegal payments made by agents of U.S. multinational companies [Miller 1979; Smallwood 1979; Georges 1981]. In congressional hearings, some well known pieces of legislation were sighted as indicated below.

> Robinson Patman Act prohibits payments in connection with sales transactions, except for services rendered.
>
> Sherman Act prohibits combinations or conspiracies in restraint of trade and the monopolization of interstate and foreign commerce.
>
> International Security Assistance and Arms Control Act of 1976 requires reports of payments made or offered to secure the sale of governmental and military items abroad.
>
> Foreign Assistance Act (1766) requires companies conducting business under its jurisdiction to report all commissions with sales to the Agency for International Development.
>
> Foreign Military Sales Act (1977) requires disclosure to purchasing governments and the Department of Defense of any agent's fees included in contracts (O'Neill, 1979).
>
> Section 20 of Title 18 of the United States Code (1976) prohibits United States citizens from attempting directly or indirectly to influence the conduct of a foreign government in relation to disputes or controversies with the United States. Title 18 U.S.C. #1001also states that:
>
> Whoever, in any matter within the jurisdiction of any department . . . of the United States knowingly and willfully . . . makes any false, fictitious or fraudulent statement or representations, or (knowing) makes or uses any false writing or document . . . shall be fined more than $10,000 or imprisoned not more than five years or both."

Other important acts, include:

> Clayton Antitrust Act of 1914
> Securities Act of 1933
> Securities Exchange Act of 1934
> Internal Revenue Code
> Tax Reform Act of 1976

In addition, the Export-Import Bank of the United States, an enterprise of the U.S. government, requires all companies to report all commissions in the contract price. There have been several criminal investigations with regard to false reporting [O'Neill, 1977].

Although there were many acts of legislation that specifically prohibit bribery and other forms of nondisclosed payments, proponents of the Act argue that prior to the enactment of the FCPA federal and state bribery statutes did not specifically prohibit the making of questionable payments abroad even though the nondisclosure of material payments was illegal [McLaughlin, 1978; Morgan, 1979; Porrata-Doria, 1985].

BRIBERY V. EXTORTION

The FCPA criminalizes bribery or corruption of foreign officials. In 1976, shortly before the enactment of the FCPA, the Ford Administration advocated a statute that would have required disclosure of but, not prohibit, a company's questionable foreign payments. A company would make the disclosure with the Commerce Department, the Interior Department, or any department except the Justice Department or the SEC [Timmeny, 1982]. But the SEC and Congress sought vigorously to criminalize questionable or corruptly made foreign payments.

The Report from the Committee on Foreign Commerce Together With Minority Views to Accompany H.R. 3815, Unlawful Corporate Payments Act of 1977 [H. Rep. 3815, 95th Cong. 1st Sess 10, 1977], attempted to explain the term "corruptly" (a term not defined in the FCPA):

> The word "corruptly" is used in order to make clear that the offer, payment, promise, or gift must be intended to induce the recipient to misuse his official position; for example, wrongfully to direct business to the payer or his client, to obtain preferential legislation, or regulations, or to induce a foreign official to fail to perform an official transaction. The word "corruptly" connotes an evil motive or purpose such as that required under 18 U.S.C. 201(b) which prohibits domestic bribery. As in 18 S.S.C. 201(b), the word "corruptly" indicates an intent or desire

> wrongfully to influence the recipient. It does not require that the act be fully consummated or succeed in producing the desired outcome [Williams, 1977].

Questions have arisen regarding extortion. If a foreign official requests payment from a U.S. company to expedite or consummate a transaction and the U.S. company complies, is this a corrupt activity? The Senate Committee on Banking, Housing & Urban Affairs in its Foreign Corrupt Practices and Domestic and Foreign Investment Improved Disclosure Acts of 1977 addressed the issue of extortion and stated:

> Sections 103 and 104 cover payments and gifts intended to influence the recipient, regardless of who first suggested the payment or gift. The defense that the payment was demanded on the part of the government official as a price for gaining entry into a market or to obtain a contract would not suffice since at some point the U.S. company would make a conscious decision whether or not to pay a bribe. That the payment may have been first proposed by the recipient rather than the U.S. company does not alter the corrupt purpose on the part of the person paying the bribe .

If, however, requested compulsory payments are lawful in the country where made, the U.S. Department of Justice has made it clear that such payments are defensible. This would not be the same when a foreign official extorts a bribe [Gevurtz, 1987].

LEGAL ISSUES

Determining the legality of business transactions under the laws of another country can be very difficult. Countries have significantly different legal models and complex, different levels of complexity, and differing codes of law. Thus, it is difficult to adopt a single standard to apply worldwide [Ettorre 1994]. In 1976, R. Hills, Chairman of the SEC, expressed mixed feelings in determining the legality of foreign transactions. At hearings of the Senate Committee on Banking, Housing, and Urban Affairs, he testified:

> I do not think that any government agency in the country has the capacity to decide what is or is not legal under foreign laws. I hate to say how many file cabinets of my former law firm were filled with opinions expressing no opinion as to whether a given transaction was legal or illegal.

McLaughlin [1978] argues that criminalization of illicit payments under the FCPA "becomes less justifiable as a country's legal model has an increasing potential for arbitrary actions." Because of the seeming dissimilarities that exist between the American legal model and the legal models that exist in certain other areas of the world, criminalization of bribery worldwide is not the best recourse. McLaughlin stresses that the criminalization of questionable payments is unwarranted for the following reasons:

> First, the structural differences among legal systems will make it more difficult to prove that payments are "corruptly" made.
>
> Second, questionable payments may represent a sort of compensating mechanisms for lack of strong judicial and constitutional protection in certain legal systems whose structural model is different from that of the United States.

In the case of Banco Nacional de Cuba v. Sabbatino [1964], the Supreme Court noted that diverging views between nations regarding standards of conduct make judicial abstention appropriate [Gevurtz, 1987].

IMPLEMENTATION CONCERNS

Many administrative and legal authorities have expressed concerns about the unilateral criminal prohibition on international bribery legislated by the FCPA. Many predicted that the Act would be ineffective in the absence of multilateral international antibribery treaties [O'Neill 1979].

In 1976, the Senate Committee on Banking, Housing and Urban Affairs, in its Foreign Corrupt Overseas Payments by U.S. Business Enterprises (S. Rep. No. 1031, 9th Cong, 2d Sess 9), addressed the viability of the application of the extraterritorial provisions of the Act under international law. The Counsel to the Committee on Banking, Housing, and Urban Affairs concluded:

> There is no general limitation under either international law or the Constitution on the authority of Congress to prescribe acts of conduct for citizens or nationals of the United States abroad.

> There has been, however, little in the way of direct case law authority on the subject, and a determination on cases arising under the language of your bill might turn on the particular facts of that case, such as whether the payment made in a foreign country has an effect on the securities market in the United States or on holders of securities of that issuers who are nationals of the United States.

Secretary of the Treasury Michael Blumenthal, in his testimony before the Consumer Protection Agency and Finance Committee, expressed some reservations on the extraterritorial applicability of the FCPA.

> I have always felt that a criminal statute such as this one will not be easy to enforce particularly because it does involve acts that take place in other countries, the whole question of extraterritoriality and get you into questions of the availability of witnesses, gets you into the questions of acts taken in other jurisdictions into which the laws are different... We must not underestimate the difficulties of enforcement that in any case will result from this kind of legislation [O'Neill 1979].

The implementation of the Act poses serious questions due to the extraterritorial application of the law and raises problems concerning the legislative jurisdiction under international law. Shelley O'Neill [1979] believes that the Act cannot be implemented in foreign countries for the following reasons:

- Public international legal theories of legislative jurisdiction may be violated by applying the Act's criminal provisions extraterritorially.
- Principles of international comity may be disregarded if competing jurisdictional interests of other nations are not recognized.
- The act of state doctrine may preclude inquiry into the action and extent of a foreign official's actions.

CONCLUSION

The antibribery provisions of the FCPA make it illegal to offer bribers to officials of foreign countries for the purpose of exerting influence and obtaining or retaining business. The enactment of the Act caused a great deal of controversy. Most Americans have now grown accustomed to the FCPA. Comparatively few newspaper headlines or editorials are found to remind us of our obligations and penalties enacted by the FCPA. Businesses have adjusted their practices in transacting business abroad so as not to be in violation of the FCPA's antibribery provisions. Many corporate executives feel that the antibribery provisions of the FCPA have made it more difficult to sell in countries where bribery is a way of life. Many executives are not clear on who in a foreign country can legally receive payments designed to facilitate business transactions. Are "small grease payments" legal or are they bribes? Such questions are not easily answered. There are situations where appropriate conduct is not clear for many in the international business community. Key terms such as "corruptly," "foreign official," and "knowing or having reason to know standard" are felt by many to be vague and ambiguous. Yet, as learned from the litigation that has taken place, executives must do what they can to understand the application of the law to avoid litigation against their companies. For their own self-interest, executives of businesses involved in international commerce, as well as their international sales representatives, must be familiar with the FCPA and how it applies in fostering their international trade.

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THE FOREIGN CORRUPT PRACTICES ACT: AN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract

Corruption through bribes and other fraudulent misappropriation abound throughout the world. This paper examines the U.S. Foreign Corrupt Practices Act of 1977 and how its enactment addressed these corruption issues. The major provisions of the Act are explained and some of the criticisms presented. The impact of the Act, along with the influence of international organizations, is discussed with specific cases involving selected countries. Although there are many valid criticisms of the Act involving loss of international sales, there are positive aspects including improvement in internal control systems. Case studies of alleged violations of the Act provide insight into the cultural and ethical environment of international business.

INTRODUCTION

Most countries have laws that make it illegal for their citizens to bribe local officials. However, the United States and Sweden are the only countries that have passed laws that make it illegal for their citizens to bribe foreign officials [Pitman and Stanford, 1991].

In 1977, the U.S. Congress passed legislation known as the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act of 1977 (FCPA) which makes it illegal to offer bribes to officials of foreign countries for the purpose of exerting influence and obtaining or retaining business. The prohibition against payments to foreign officials is applicable to all U.S. domestic firms, regardless of whether they are publicly or privately held, and to foreign companies filing with the U.S. Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC).

Apart from the bribery provisions that affect all companies, the Act also requires SEC registrants under the Securities Exchange Act of 1934 to meet additional requirements. These include the maintenance of reasonably complete and accurate records and an adequate system of internal control. The Act significantly affects all SEC companies. However, it is not clear to what extent the Act may affect auditors' responsibility to review and evaluate systems of internal control as a part of doing the audit. Many auditors believe that they are not required to review internal control to the extent that they can express an opinion as to whether their clients meet the requirements of the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act [Arens and Loebbecke, 1997].

FOREIGN CORRUPT PRACTICES ACT

The enactment of the FCPA evolved from investigations and a public scandal in the early 1970s that revealed that hundreds of American businesses had secretly made kickbacks, bribes, or other questionable payments to foreign officials to obtain or maintain business connections. In response to those investigations, the U.S. Congress passed the FCPA. The Act deals with two significant issues: illegal foreign payments and accounting provisions.

ILLEGAL FOREIGN PAYMENTS

The FCPA makes it a criminal offense for any American business to pay, promise to pay, or authorize payment of anything of value to foreign officials to obtain or maintain business relationships. A business enterprise violating these provisions may be fined up to $1 million. Individuals acting as representatives o the business may be fined up to $10,000, imprisoned for up to five years, or both. Many businesses hav established written codes of conduct to address these issues.

ACCOUNTING PROVISIONS

Although the illegal payments provisions apply to essentially every American business, accounting provisions apply only to registrants that file reports with the SEC as required by the Securities Exchange Act of 1934. The accounting provisions of the FCPA amend the Securities Exchange Act of 1934 and are subject to SEC enforcement. An entity's management is responsible for compliance with the FCPA.

Two major requirements are mandated by the accounting provisions of the FCPA. First, the FCPA requires registrants to establish and maintain books, records, and accounts that accurately reflect the transactions of the registrant. Second, it requires registrants to establish a system of internal accounting controls sufficient to meet the following four objectives:

- Transactions are executed in accordance with management's general or specific authorization.
- Transactions are recorded as necessary: (1) to permit preparation of financial statements in conformity with generally accepted accounting principles or any other criteria applicable to such statements, and (2) to maintain accountability for assets.
- Access to assets is permitted only in accordance with management's authorization.
- The recorded accountability for assets is compared with the existing assets at reasonable intervals and appropriate action is taken with respect to any differences [Guy, Alderman and Winters, 1996].

During the first ten years after enactment of the FCPA, the SEC brought 76 injunctive actions and 10 administrative proceedings to enforce the accounting provisions of the Act. As a result, there has been an increased emphasis on establishing and maintaining effective internal control systems and internal audit staffs. The FCPA requires publicly held companies to devise and maintain systems of internal accounting controls to provide reasonable assurance that control objectives are being achieved. One method of gaining this assurance is to establish an internal audit department. Consequently, many U.S. companies covered by the FCPA have either established or increased the size and quality of their internal audit staffs. In addition, in 1987, the National Commission on Fraudulent Financial Reporting (Treadway Commission) recommended that public companies establish qualified and independent internal audit staffs [Guy, Alderman, and Winters, 1996]. There have been no direct responsibilities imposed on external auditors.

CRITICISM OF THE FCPA

The FCPA evolved primarily from investigations by the Office of the Watergate Special Prosecutor and an SEC voluntary disclosure program which provided evidence of significant questionable or illegal acts perpetrated by U.S. companies overseas [Ricchiute, 1992]. The enactment of the FCPA made it illegal for companies reporting to the SEC and other "domestic concerns" to bribe a foreign government official, political party, or candidate for certain specific "corrupt" purposes. The Act became controversial immediately, being criticized for lack of pragmatism, poor understanding of foreign mores, and deterring competitiveness abroad. Because of the enactment of the FCPA, many have perceived the U.S. Congress to be operating with naiveté and with lack of understanding of world cultural and political environments.

Some critics argued that the FCPA was unnecessary because U.S. law enforcement agencies already had at least ten statutes that prohibit foreign payments by U.S. firms: the Securities Act of 1933, the Securities Exchange Act of 1934, the Internal Revenue Code, the Tax Reform Act of 1976, the International Security Assistance and Arms Control Act of 1976, the Bank Secrecy and Reporting Act of 1934, the Clayton Antitrust Act of 1914, and the Fraud and False Act [Aggarwal and Kim, 1982].

Ongoing criticism of the FCPA has been unrelenting. A few observations follow:

- McCoy and Griffin [1978] reported in The legal Times of Washington that the antibribery laws and the accounting provisions of the FCPA represent the most significant intrusion of government into corporate affairs since the original enactment of securities laws in the 1930's.
- The Wall Street Journal [1979] reported that the passage of the FCPA has caused fear in most executives of multinational companies (MNCs) that American firms would lose sales worth millions of dollars in foreign trade. Also, there was fear that U.S. competitiveness in markets overseas would diminish.
- Raymond A. Kathe [1979], a Tokyo based Vice President of Citibank, wrote in Business Week that: "The Germans, the Japanese, the French and the British, all of whom are advancing in Asia and elsewhere, are not bothered by antibribery and antiboycott law, by environmentalist pressure, or by having to pay taxes on income earned overseas. All of these countries are laughing all the way to the bank."
- Robert Northam [1980], in The Accounting Forum, indicated that the unilateral American effort to upgrade the ethical standards of international business is believed to be sectioning off large portions of the globe as unsafe areas for U.S. companies to solicit business. The ability to do business in many parts of the world is impaired unless an "entry fee" is paid.
- John Kimalman [1994] reported that Daniel Tarullo, the assistant secretary of state for economic and business affairs, stated: "Officials with one major U.S. company told me that in the first six weeks of 1994 they lost $2 billion worth of contracts because of bribery from competitors."
- In 1995, the Department of Commerce reported that foreign illicit payments and bribery put U.S. companies at a competitive disadvantage, costing U.S. business billions of dollars [Music, 1996].
- Clara Van Haste [1996], in Electrical World, reported that power plant developers must contend with entrenched corruption from foreign rivals and governments despite the Foreign Corrupt Practices of 1977.

SURVEYS

In addition to expressions of individual perception regarding the FCPA, several surveys have been conducted by professional organizations and academicians to assess management's reaction to the Act. Some of these surveys have revealed critical perceptions and some have revealed positive perceptions of management as noted below:

Critical perceptions

In 1979, Peat, Marwick, Mitchell & Co. polled several executives of multinational corporations on the effects of the FCPA. Most of the executives did not feel that the bribery law was an appropriate response to corporate governance. Seventy-nine percent indicated that the new bribery prohibition would not stop bribery of foreign officials by U.S. companies. Seventy-one percent thought the Act would result in a significant loss of business by U.S. companies to foreign competitors. With regard to the internal control provision of the Act, eighty-two percent indicated that this section of the Act is misleading [Kaikati and Label, 1980].

Robert K. Mautz, C. Kell, M. Maher, A. Martin, R. Reiley, S. Severance, and B.J. White [1980], surveyed 673 companies and visited 50 corporations, interviewing chief financial officers, data processing managers, and internal auditors. The survey found that:

- most executive believe the Act burdens them unduly for the transgression of a few companies;
- many executives cannot accept the accounting provisions of the Act as rational, economical, and equitable;
- most executives have difficulty understanding "realistic differences" among such terms as internal accounting control, internal control and management;
- the aspect of internal control troubling executives most is increasing dependence on computers; and most data processing managers surveyed were critical of the competence of auditors to evaluate the adequacy of controls of EDP systems.

The researchers also found in their survey that:

- an increase in internal audit staff size has been associated with "sensitive" payments;
- a primary concern of the chief executives is control over their EDP systems.

Aggarwal and Kim [1982] surveyed several MNCs to determine the impact of the FCPA on foreign trade. The results of their survey show that:

- supporters of the retention of the Act say that the strict provisions of the FCPA were needed to prevent further damage to U.S. foreign policy. The Act is perceived as a deterrent to practices which undermine the principle of fair trade;
- 58% of the respondents felt that in order to make the Act more equitable, effective, and understandable, the U.S. Congress should remove criminal sanctions from the Act, end dual enforcement by the SEC and the Department of Justice for both domestic and foreign transactions, and limit its accounting requirements; and
- an overwhelming majority of the respondents pointed out the Act's inability to reduce unethical business practices because of cultural differences.

Beck, Maher, and Tschoegh [1991] conducted a study on the impact of the FCPA and concluded that there is some empirical evidence that the FCPA had a negative effect on U.S. exports to some non-Latin American countries but not to bribe-prone countries in Latin America.

Positive perceptives

In March 1981, the General Accounting Office (GAO) conducted a survey of 250 "Fortune 1000" companies. Less than one percent of 250 businesses surveyed experienced serious losses resulting from the FCPA [Bottiglieri et al., 1991]. The GAO survey also showed that an overwhelming majority of the companies had taken a variety of positive steps to prevent illegal payments to foreign officials and to improve their internal control [Maher, 1981]. The Corporate Accounting Reporter [1981] reported the following statistics on the impact of the FCPA:

- 60% indicated the FCPA influenced them to make changes in their codes of conduct;
- 75% reported that they made changes in their systems of internal accounting control;
- 55% reported that the costs to comply with the FCPA were greater than the benefits derived; and
- 30% said that they lost business because of the Act.

The GAO concluded its report by stating that "the Act has brought about widespread efforts to strengthen corporate codes of conduct and internal control systems" [GAO, 1981]. The GAO recommended that criminal penalties in the law's accounting section be repealed.

Monroe Ingherman and George H. Sorter [1982] found in their survey that companies felt, as a result of the FCPA, they had benefited, at least indirectly, in three ways through:

- Increased documentation that resulted in reorganization and consolidation of control procedures and, thus, more efficient management of the control function.
- A perceived reduction of external audit fees due to the increased effectiveness and extension of the internal audit function.
- Increased awareness of, and sensitivity to, the benefits of controls of line management.

John Graham [1983] presented empirical evidence that U.S. exports to "bribe-prone" countries had increased faster than to "non-bribe-prone" countries. It was concluded that U.S. corporations had either not stopped bribing in spite of enactment of the FCPA or else bribes were not a significant factor in international business competitiveness. Also, The Economist [1988] reported that a 1983 study showed that U.S. exports to bribe-prone countries had increased faster than exports to countries that were not considered bribe prone.

INFLUENCE OF INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Corruption in business continues to be a worldwide concern. In 1996, the World Bank and the Organization of American States came out against corruption in cross-border business transactions. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development and the United Nations are examples of two other international organizations that have historically tried to address this concern.

ORGANIZATION FOR ECONOMIC COOPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT (OECD)

Corruption has been, and continues to be, a major concern in the developing world. Many countries with developing economies have looked to the OECD to take action. As early as 1976, the OECD published guidelines for multinational corporations.

In the 1988 Trade and Competitiveness Act, the U.S. Congress directed the president to seek an agreement with the member governments of the OECD to ban the use of bribery by transitional corporations. The U.S. government made a concerted effort through international forums to deal with the issue of bribery.

On November 1, 1993, Business Week reported in "Capital Wrap-up: Competitiveness" that the Clinton Administration ". . . would reconsider the FCPA if an international group, such as the 24-nation Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, would develop a code barring commercial bribery by all of its members." In 1994, the Clinton Administration urged industrial nations to adopt strict antibribery laws comparable to those of the U.S. and asked the OECD to take a stand in combating bribery abroad [Ettorre, 1994]. In May 1994, the OECD issued a statement recommending that its members act to "combat the bribery of foreign public officials in connection with international business transactions" [Kimelman, 1994].

UNITED NATIONS (UN)

In 1976, the UN Economic and Social Council saw in the forthcoming FCPA a message worth listening to and drafted an international treaty which would prohibit illicit payments by MNCs outside the borders of their home country. The UN General Assembly approved a code of conduct in 1980 to restrict business practices as formulated by the UN Conference on Trade and Development [Aggarwal and Suk, 1982].

The UN General Assembly has even asked member states to make bribery in international business a crime and to remove rules allowing corporations to classify bribes as deductions [Lavelle, 1997].

PERSPECTIVES WITH SELECTED COUNTRIES

Culture and tradition across country borders greatly impact national attitudes and the social and political climate in which to impose a law or professional standard of conduct. Pisani [1986] noted that bribery has been sanctioned by culture and tradition in many countries for many years. When a Mexican lawyer gives a "mordida" to the court clerk, he is engaging in a practice that was sanctioned by St. Augustin in the middle ages. The Nigerian practice of paying a dash goes back to fifteenth century contacts with the Portuguese where the Nigerians sought gifts in exchange for their labor. Discussed below are some specific cases or situations involving selected countries.

NIGERIA

Companies subject to the FCPA find themselves at a competitive disadvantage when conducting business in nations such as Nigeria. Although Nigerian Law prohibits the payment and receipt of bribes, in the case of Kirkpatrick vs Environmental Tectonics Co. International [1990], Kirkpatrick and Co. obtained a construction contract from the Nigerian government by bribing its officials. Environmental Tectonics, an unsuccessful bidder for the contract, learned that Kirkpatrick had paid a 20% commission to bribe governmental officials and sued Kirkpatrick for damages for violating the provision of the FCPA. The U.S. Supreme Court held that Kirkpatrick could be sued under the FCPA provisions thus allowing civil suits to be initiated by unsuccessful competitors who lose bids due to violation of the FCPA [Pitman and Sanford, 1994].

CANADA

Canadian law bans bribery of federal and provincial government officials but does not address payments made to foreign government employees. Klotz [1994] believes that the U.S. Foreign Corrupt Practices Act and the UN Draft International Agreement on Illicit Payments could provide Canada with a framework for drafting laws prohibiting bribes of foreign officials. However, the enactment of the FCPA in the U.S. influenced the Canadian government to issue an act that has some similar elements. Section 20(2) of the Canada Business Corporation states that a corporation ". . . shall prepare and maintain adequate accounting records" and section 22(2) states that a corporation and its agents shall take reasonable precautions to:

- prevent loss of destruction of assets;
- prevent falsification of entries; and
- facilitate detection and correction of inaccuracies in the records and registers required by this Act to be prepared and maintained" [Sawyer, 1988].

Klotz [1994] believes that criminal laws, or income tax laws, could be used to proscribe such behavior and conform Canadian Law to international ethical standards.

In the case of United States v. Castle [1991], John Blondek and Vernon R. Tull of the Eagle Bus Company bribed two Canadians, Donald Castle and Donald W. T. Lowry, and were charged for violating the FCPA. The Canadians, who received $50,000 commission and guaranteed to sell the buses to the Saskatchewan provincial government, were charged for conspiring in violation of the FCPA. The court, however, dismissed the conspiracy charges against the Canadians since the U.S. Congress exempts foreigners from punishment by U.S. courts [Sheffert, 1994].

UNITED KINGDOM

The United Kingdom has laws that prohibit its own government officials from accepting bribes, but there are no British laws preventing a British company from bribing foreign officials [Kimelman, 1994].

CHINA

In China, once a company has developed business via illegal payments, it is difficult to shed the image of corruption [Ettorre, 1994]. Ettorre reported that there are two ways for companies to do business in China—legally, by dealing directly with the appropriate ministry, or illegally, by having an agent to smooth the red tape. Givant [1994] reported that the FCPA Amendments of 1988 helped protect U.S. business in China where gift-giving and exchange of favors are part of the social norm. According to the U.S. Department of Justice, no violation of the FCPA in China has been prosecuted.

The FCPA prohibits bribing "any foreign official for the purpose of... inducing such foreign official to use his influence with a foreign government or instrumentality thereof to affect or influence any act or decision of such government or instrumentality, in order to assist such issuer in obtaining or retaining business for or with, or directing business to, any person." Givant [1994] noticed that the "instrumentality" concept does not fit in the Chinese political system since it is difficult to clearly define an "instrumentality" of the Chinese government because the state retains at least 50 percent of the shares of the restructured enterprise and the government and Party officials appoint the management of such firms.

JAPAN

Lockheed's bribery of Japanese government officials was the spark that ignited passage of the FCPA [Kimelman, 1994]. In 1991, Singer reported that Lockheed Corporation, an American multinational company, paid an estimated $25 million in concealed payments to Japanese officials in connection with the sale of its Tristar L-104 aircraft to Japan. This led to the resignation and criminal conviction of the Japanese Prime Minister Kankuie Tanaka [Singer, 1991].

INDONESIA

In 1978, the SEC prosecuted Kathy Industries and its officers for failing to disclose what was required under the Securities Act. The SEC alleged that: (a) Kathy Industries had paid $43,750 to a consultant and $22,500 to an agent, and (b) it had promised to pay 13.33% of its profits from a 30-year production contract to a Cayman Island Corporation organized by the consultant, knowing that part of the money would be paid to an Indonesian government official as a bribe to ensure that Kathy Industries would receive the contract. Although the payment ceased after May, 1974, the contract was not terminated until 1978 (after passage of the FCPA). Kathy Industries agreed to establish a special committee composed of outside directors to investigate the charges and take steps to prevent a recurrence [Bathen 1978].

MALAYSIA

Countries such as Indonesia, Malaysia, China, India, and Thailand are known for having government officials that are easily bribable [Kimelman, 1994]. In 1993, the Malaysian government declared several British companies ineligible to bid for infrastructure contracts since they had bribed Malaysian officials. British citizens were dismayed at the Malaysian government's action but paid little attention to the gravity of the bribery itself (Ettorre, 1994).

GERMANY

In 1993, the German Social Democrats, the leading opposition party at the time, introduced a motion in parliament to end the tax-deductibility of commission payments that serve as bribes. The motion was overwhelmingly defeated by the Bundestag, the ruling Christian Democrats [Kimelman, 1994].

ITALY

In 1996, the SEC accused Montedison of Italy for hiding millions of dollars in bribes and for submitting fraudulent financial reports [Taylor, 1996]. The Italian government conducted "Operation Clean Hand" to eradicate high-level internal corruption. Former Prime Minister Bettino Craxi and hundreds of government and corporate officials were indicted for corruption. Prosecutors also investigated the role of foreign multinational companies in Italy for potential cases of bribery [Ettorre, 1994].

EGYPT

Gillespie [1987] reported that during the late 1970s, the People's Assembly in Cairo demanded an investigation of the state owned airline since the Egyptian government had paid for airplanes bought from Boeing for more than the amount charged to the Jordanian government. The investigation undertaken by the SEC revealed that Boeing had bribed Egyptian government officials which accounted for the price differential.

In 1994, Lockheed Corporation and two of its executives were indicted for a second time on charges of making illegal foreign payments in violation of the FCPA [Harris and Ricks, 1994]. Lockheed allegedly paid $1 million to Leila Takla, a member of the Egyptian Parliament, to help secure a contract to sell his country three C-130 aircraft. On January 27, 1995, Lockheed pleaded guilty for conspiring to violate U.S. antibribery laws and was fined $24.8 million. It admitted to falsifying records and lying to the Pentagon in selling three C-130 cargo planes for $79 million to Egypt [Kimelman, 1994; Pasztor, 1995].

IRAN

Singer [1991] reported that William Norris, former CEO of Control Data Corporation was fined $1,381,000 for bribing foreign officials in Iran. Although making payments to foreign officials to secure business does not violate Iranian laws, the firm was, nonetheless, fined for violating the FCPA.

ARGENTINA

In 1996, an Argentine federal judge initiated a formal investigation into a $249 million contract between the local IBM and Banco de la Nacion Argentine. At issue is whether IBM paid bribes to obtain the contract. The U.S. Justice Department and the SEC are looking into whether IBM violated the FCPA provisions [Friedland, 1996; Ayres, 1996].

BRAZIL

Countries in the Middle East and South America, with their emphasis on family connections and personal contacts, have traditionally condoned illicit payments. Brazilians were surprised to learn that 70 percent of outside aid to Brazil was pocketed by corrupt politicians. The Brazilian Congress took action to stop the bribery and called for 18 lawmakers to be expelled because of their involvement in a multi-million-dollar bribery clique [Ettorre, 1994].

ECUADOR

In 1994, the Ecuadorian government announced that before any domestic or foreign company bids on any government contracts, its senior corporate executives must sign a statement that they will not attempt to bribe any government official. Companies are directed to disclose fees, commissions and payments to agents and middlemen [Ettorre, 1994]. Ecuador is not naive to think that a piece of paper will do it all. But this action raises the level of consciousness and puts corporations doing business in Ecuador on notice that the government is serious [Hershman, 1994].

Alberto Dahik, Ecuador's Vice President and Chairman of Transparency International, pressed that the bribing of foreign officials and other corrupt practices be discussed at the Summit of the Americas in Miami and at the Group of Seven Industrial Democracies [Ettorre, 1994].

RUSSIA

In Russia, the privatization of business has led to increased opportunities for public officials to engage in bribery. Determining liability under the FCPA is fraught with legal ambiguities in a country undergoing major legal and economic changes. Most Department of Justice enforcement actions have focused on bribery involving high government officials [Dugan and Lechtman, 1996]. Bryce C. Thueson [1997] reported that kickbacks and bribes, though technically illegal in Russia, are normal business practices. Lack of internal controls and documentation, and "ethical lapses", seem to be the major hurdles for Western companies doing business in Russia. It is possible for a Russian company to hire a government agency official as a consultant on a business matter even though the agency official is reviewing the business matter under consideration.

INFLUENCE ON AMERICAN ETHICAL CONDUCT

The enactment of the FCPA and the Trade and Competitiveness Act of 1988 raised ethical issues in the corporate world. From a cultural viewpoint, it is believed that the commercial modes and moral practices of other countries will not be changed to meet the U.S. standards of conduct unless revolutionary new social orders change the patterns of centuries [Basche, 1985]. The FCPA requires an ethical posture on the part of American corporations regardless of the environment in which they may be operating. As a result, the FCPA has influenced many American corporations to adopt codes of ethics or standards of conduct. By 1988, 85 percent of the 2,000 largest companies had a written code of ethics that provided management with ethical guidelines [Courtemanche, 1988]. Some companies have even established an ethics ombudsperson [Worthy, 1989].

Despite the criticism leveled against the U.S. Congress for enacting the FCPA, several critics have acknowledged that the Act has been beneficial not only to enhance the image of the United States abroad but also to insulate businessmen from unethical requests from foreign officials. The Act has also helped to clarify ethical considerations of bribes, and has helped to educate people regarding ethical behavior. In addition, management attitudes toward bribes shows disapproval. Longnecker, McKinney and Moore [1988] surveyed business executives to assess the ethical ramifications of international bribery. The survey showed that almost one-third of the 2219 respondents rated bribery as "never acceptable" and almost one-half disapproved to some degree. The researchers contended that the degree of disapproval of international bribery by the U.S. business professionals is greater than much of the literature supposes.

Another study that shows the influence of the FCPA was conducted by Mary Jane Sheffet [1995]. She surveyed corporate counsel of Fortune 500 firms to determine what effect the FCPA and its 1988 amendments had on corporate codes of ethics. The survey showed that 27 out of 69 respondents changed their codes of conduct.

CONCLUSION

The enactment of the FCPA was unique in the history of the world because it made bribing foreign officials a crime. The discovery that American firms had bribed foreign officials had disastrous consequences in the United States and abroad. It led to the resignation and or conviction of Prime Minister Tanaka in Japan, Prince Bernhard in the Netherlands, and President Lopez in Honduras.

Those who favor the Act believe that the fears of the diminishing competitive edge in the international business arena by American multinationals are grossly exaggerated. Kate Gillespie, in her 1987 study of the impact of the FCPA in the Middle East, concluded that the Act's potential to hurt U.S. exports remains unproven. U.S. export share has dropped in the Middle East, but explanations other than FCPA appear to account for a large portion of this decline [Gillespie, 1987].

As a result of the enactment of the Act some positive aspects are often overlooked. Many companies now voluntarily include in their annual reports to shareholders a management report on internal control. Private and publicly-held companies voluntarily evaluate the adequacy of their systems of internal control on a continuing basis [Root, 1983]. These control systems help companies operate efficiently and ethically. They can also help identify potential problem areas and "red flags".

Lewis and Kissinger [1991] list the following types of transactions which may be considered as "red flags" and may prompt an investigation for violation of the FCPA:

- the reputation of the foreign agent;
- the agent's relationship in the foreign government;
- payments made to third parties in the third countries for no obvious reason;
- payment of large commissions;

- payment to one or more individuals who do not render substantial services and are not part of an ongoing business, and do not have a substantial interest in the firm.

The FCPA is a product of the cultural and political environment of the early 1970s. As such it must be evaluated in that context. Considering the entrenched customs of trading in foreign countries, the unilateral decision of the U.S. government to stop bribing foreign officials may seem presumptuous or at least naive. American corporations are now very sophisticated in foreign trade. Cultural bias, political and economic environments, and trade customs are seriously considered in the penetration efforts of foreign markets. In the short run, the Act may be deemed a disaster for U.S. exports, but in the long run some benefits may derive. Nations may be willing to increase their imports, on ethical grounds, from countries that uphold high standards of business behavior.

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CREATING A PROMOTIONAL PLAN FOR ESTABLISHING A CENTER OF EXCELLENCE: A CASE APPROACH TO IMPROVE EDUCATIONAL MISSION IMPACT

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Abstract

In December 1996, Louisiana Department of Education (LDOE), Louisiana Office of Public Health (LOPH), and Southeastern Louisiana University (SLU) formed a partnership to establish The Center of Excellence in Health and Education at SLU. The Center had the responsibility of providing a support structure for coalition activity; developing innovative, interdisciplinary models of inservice and preservice training for educators, social service professionals, health professionals, preventive mental health professionals, school-based health center staff, and local coordinated school health coalitions; in addition to acting as fiscal agent for grant projects and service contracts for the state of Louisiana. For the Center's mission to be accomplished it was essential that the message be heard by the necessary audiences and the services meet the needs of the target markets in a timely fashion. It is the intent of this marketing project to start slowly, evaluate progress, and periodically redesign to incorporate necessary changes. Marketing the Center consisted of informal exploration of local, community, parish, and state policies and public mandates regarding school health through informal interviews, program reviews, and questionnaires. The Center's staff have identified potential partners and clients, clarified primary services to be offered, and communicated with intended audiences through flyers, brochures, and word of mouth. This was somewhat ineffective; thus, it was necessary to regroup and reorganize efforts. The revised goals of the marketing plan include a review of the original data, supplement findings with current information to determine what is working in coordinated linkages; identify the components of a coordinated approach that already exist within the state of Louisiana, and prioritize issues and programs according to importance and probability of success thus building a base of support.

INTRODUCTION

During the past several decades a reduction of health literacy and expertise has occurred at a time when demand for knowledgeable decision-making is critical. That need for health expertise has an impact on both social and our economic systems. W. Edwards Deming [Latzko, 1995] stated that "Eighty-five percent of the problem of low-performance systems is not people, but structure and process." Students or educators are not the problem; it's the way we structure the process of public health education.

Educating and motivating the public, as well as interested agencies, businesses, and educational institutions, to build strong support for a coordinated approach to health and educational issues were the focus of a committed core of Louisiana professionals. These individuals represented diverse groups throughout the state and determined that a Center of Excellence would be the most effective way to successfully generate high quality programs and eliminate duplication of efforts.

BACKGROUND

On May 5, 1995, and with support provided by the Louisiana Department of Education (LDOE), Louisiana Division of the American Cancer Society (La-ACS), Louisiana Office of Public Health(LOPH), and National School Health Education Coalition (NaSHEC), more than 80 people gathered at Southeastern Louisiana University (SLU) and proposed a plan for improving the lives of children, youth, and adults. These individuals represented diverse groups, including non-profit organizations, state agencies, school administrators and teachers, social service organizations, clergy, community leaders, legislators, various industry leaders, students, parents, and university faculty. In December 1996, the LDOE, LOPH, and SLU formed a partnership to reach the goals provided for in the plan and establish The Center of Excellence in Health and Education.

A CENTER OF EXCELLENCE? FOR WHAT REASON?

Poverty, abuse, neglect, oral health problems, teenage pregnancy, violence, suicide, and drug use are but a few of the difficulties facing Louisiana's youth. For example, a 1994 report released by the Northwestern National Life Insurance Company ranked Louisiana 50th among all states in the general health of its population based on 17 components of healthiness and a holistic view of health as outlined by the World Health Organization (WHO). More specifically, the The Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System Report indicated that 12% of high school students in Louisiana reported they had attempted suicide, 45% been in a physical fight, 54% consumed alcohol, and 28% smoked cigarettes on a regular basis [Everett, Kann, and McReynolds, 1993]. Also, Louisiana's statistics indicated that the state had the highest teen violent death rate for youth 15-19 years of age which ranked the state 50th, and 48th in child death rate for children aged 1-14 [Center for the Study of Social Policy, 1996]. These health problems negatively impact students' academic performance and ultimately affect productive citizenship as evidenced by Louisiana's rank of 50th in retaining students through high school graduation [Center for the Study of Social Policy, 1996].

SOME OF THE PROBLEMS

The quality and success of Louisiana's schools are inextricably linked with the health of students and the education programs offered. Although the Board of Elementary and Secondary Education (BESE) mandated health education be taught throughout the state, many schools have failed to implement the policy effectively. State standards include a minimum of 30 minutes a day of health and physical education in Kindergarten through grade 6, 50 minutes a day in health and physical education in middle school, and a full continuous semester of health education in high school. In an informal survey conducted by Southeastern Louisiana University, the majority of surveyed high school graduates reported they had very little instruction concerning health issues in their academic careers prior to entering college.

Lack of (1) professional preparation; (2) material, monetary, and human resources; (3) integrated curricula; and (4) updated guidelines for classroom teachers appear to contribute to the ineffective implementation of these mandates for health education. Students do not seem to acquire the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to make healthy decisions. Likely obstacles include the following:

- National Standards require a minimum of 25 hours in health education preparatory courses for entry level professionals [National Health Education Standards, 1995]. Louisiana teachers do not routinely meet that standard.
- Most Louisiana school districts do not have a health education specialist on staff to supervise the implementation of coordinated school heath education.
- Teachers have reported that they were not as prepared as they wished to teach health education. For

instance, while77% of the teachers surveyed reported that they use the current state curriculum guide as a resource to plan their lessons, the LDOE has not updated the BESE approved health education curriculum since 1983.

THE SOLUTION: A CENTER OF EXCELLENCE IN HEALTH AND EDUCATION

The educational process requires revitalization to produce an effective system that enable will students to become healthy and productive citizens. One mechanism for achieving this revitalization was to establish a Center of Excellence to tap into the human potential available in Louisiana. The Center was charged with providing the support structure for coalition activity. It should be emphasized this was not a top-down process, but one where partnerships occurred among schools, universities, agencies, communities, health organizations, private industry, and state agencies. In addition, the Center agreed to develop innovative, interdisciplinary models of inservice and preservice training for educators, social service professionals, health professionals, mental health professionals, school-based health center staff, and local coordinated school health coalitions. Additionally, the Center became the fiscal agent for grant projects and service contracts for the state of Louisiana.

As a collaborative model, the Center tapped the expertise of professionals in communities, agencies, institutions, hospitals, government entities, universities throughout the state, as well as Southeastern's faculty. Additionally, an important objective for the Center was to blend the perspectives of these diverse groups into a coalition working to benefit Louisianians.

WHICH MARKETING PLAN? WHAT MARKETING PLAN?

The first step was to determine the mandated procedure for establishing a center. While adhering to state requirements, the staff carried out an informal exploration of local, community, parish, and state policies and public mandates regarding school health. Although informal, these interviews, program reviews, and questionnaires assisted in the process of establishing a center and publicized the strengths of having a Center in Louisiana.

DEFINING THE PURPOSE OF THE CENTER

The Center advocates delivery of coordinated health initiatives that meet national standards preparing human service professionals and preservice students for the 21st century. The Center facilitates collaboration among local, state, national, and international health organizations addressing comprehensive issues of mutual concern. The ultimate goal is to provide leadership and advocacy to guarantee quality health and educational opportunities throughout Louisiana.

WHAT ARE THE BENEFITS OF HAVING A CENTER?

Nationally, hundreds of thousands of children and adolescents have adopted positive health habits and practices through participation in programs with a coordinated school health approach [Kolbe, Kann, and Collins, 1995]. These programs assist in the prevention of immediate health problems (e.g., homicide, suicide, HIV/AIDS, sexually transmitted diseases, injury) and the premature onset of diseases (e.g., cancer and heart disease). As a result of coordinated approaches to school health programming, reports indicate an increase in student attendance and academic achievement; a reduction in school vandalism, tobacco and other drug use; as well as a reduced cost of health care.

A conservative analysis indicated that the return on investments in health education can be as high as $13.00 for every $1.00 spent [Centers for Disease Control, Division of Adolescent and School Health, in review]. Students who are health literate will have a positive economic impact for Louisiana. Eventual returns on investments in a coordinated approach include reduced worker absenteeism, reduced hospital utilization, lower insurance premiums, and fewer insurance claims, in addition to increased worker productivity [National Center for Education Statistics, 1997]. With this in mind, the Center determined it needed to publicize that (1) it existed, (2) it needed new partners; and (3) its services were available.

IDENTIFYING STAKEHOLDERS

Initially, the marketing of the Center was a relatively difficult matter. After the inception of the first contacts no formal promotional plan was designed. In fact, the Center appeared to not have the structure, secure funding, or expertise necessary to successfully implement any marketing strategy.

The purpose of an early assessment was to gather ammunition to support the Center's existence and garner approval by the State Board of Regents. However, it was critical that additional partners be obtained. Some potential collaborators were identified, including the Louisiana Department of Social Services (DSS), Louisiana Office of Mental Health (OMH), Louisiana Office of Alcohol and Drug Abuse (OADA), and Louisiana Division of the American Cancer Society (La-ACS). A review of the components of the coordinated approach espoused by the Center helped reveal individuals and agencies with allied interests. A working paper was produced for Center personnel who would conduct personal visits with prospective partners.

AREAS TARGETED BY THE CENTER

There are eight specific areas addressed by the Center: (1) parent and community involvement, (2) safe and healthy school environment, (3) nutrition services, (4) health education, (5) health services, (6) counseling and social services, (7) physical education, and (8) staff and faculty health promotion. Each community or entity served by the Center initiated programs and provided educational opportunities tailored to their constituencies needs. Programs might address issues pertaining to growth and development, family living, consumer health, nutrition, drug-free living, or disease prevention.

To deliver its message initially, the Center's staff held awareness seminars in conjunction with attending professional meetings related to health issues and personal contacts with appropriate prospects. All of this was described by the staff as diffuse and appeared to have little substantive impact.

PROMOTE WHAT SERVICES?

Teachers, other human services professionals, and state agencies are requesting training opportunities. Joint efforts coordinated by the Center for LOPH, LDOE, Institutions of Higher Education (IHE) and Public Schools (PS) were provided in a variety of venues and for varied topics. Some of these educational seminars include HIV/AIDS Awareness, curricular models for elementary and high school use, and a week long Summer Institute providing multiple inservice opportunities. The marketing strategies employed included brainstorming the target market, clarifying the services offered, and communicating the message to the intended audience through flyers, brochures, and by word-of-mouth. This was somewhat effective. Attendance figures were low with the same people participating. However, the appearance of "rebuys" in the market is encouraging.

WHERE DO WE GO FROM HERE?

First, regroup and reorganize efforts; review original data gathered and supplement it with current information to determine what is working in coordinated linkages. Collecting data from parish school boards, state agencies, media articles, and internet searches is scheduled. An analysis of these data will delineate currently successful services, those services and products needed, as well as areas where a duplication of efforts occurs.

Second, identify the components of a coordinated approach that already exist within the state. The staff will design handouts and questionnaires; conduct interviews; make PowerPoint presentations; schedule personal visits; and conduct promotional seminars to gather information. Groups to be addressed include the remaining state agencies charged with safeguarding health related issues; industries, nonprofit groups, and foundations that have supported such initiatives in the past; along with parent and school organizations.

Third, a successful marketing campaign will require prioritizing issues and programs according to importance and probability of success. Building a base of support and identifying where to start each campaign will naturally flow from the data. The staff will select those individuals, groups, or organizations who are most supportive of the Center and would be most receptive to working on related projects. The criteria are those issues and programs that require the least amount of resources -- both human and financial -- to implement. There is a need for a few wins to bolster recruitment of the team and excite the fans.

Fourth, reluctance to change or ignorance of the extent of disruption caused by agreeing to change is a real dilemma. The Center partners and staff must make a major commitment. Reviewing the mission and goals of the Center and answering the following questions will help alleviate undue aggravation. Is the Center a "change for the better" over the existing way health and educational issues are addressed now? How much time and commitment (money, personnel, materials) will this Center require? How ready are we to promote the Center? Is there a leadership structure and set of operating procedures in place to enable the Center's success? If a marketing plan is successful, is the Center ready to handle the success?

For the Center's mission to be accomplished, it is essential that (1) the message be heard by the necessary audience, (2) services meet the needs of the target markets in a timely fashion, and (3) produce deliverables in a cost effective manner. This marketing and educational initiative represents a collaborative effort on the part of public schools, the university, state agencies, and community organizations. The Center must assume a leadership position through the collaborative efforts of its members or its future will be imperiled. It is the intent of this marketing project to start slowly, evaluate progress, and periodically redesign to incorporate changes necessary to succeed.

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THE CASE OF THE *ENTERTAINING* GLOBAL INFORMATION SYSTEM: THEORY AND PRACTICE UNITE

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Abstract

An organization's information technology infrastructure, the quality and viability of existing systems, the technology currently being used, overall technical skills, and spending levels for all aspects of information technology uniquely, significantly, and in many ways irrevocably, impact the development and implementation of global information systems. These systems are also impacted by an equally wide range of non-technical factors, including the organizational structure of the enterprise; information requirements at the corporate, regional and local levels; cross-cultural issues; national regulations impacting information systems; and overall market forces.

Planning for the development and implementation of global information systems requires that a company prepare a strategic information systems plan that includes an evaluation of its current information technology activities and the ways in which they support its business strategies. Appropriate steering and operations committees should be established to ensure not only the design of effective systems, but also the "buy-in" of all organizational units, both local and abroad, throughout the company. Senior management's commitment of its support for the systems activities is critical to the success of any plan for new and/or improved information systems, whether they be domestic or international.

Recently, a major enterprise in the entertainment industry, a record company with world-wide operations, completed the implementation of major phases of its global information systems. This was preceded by an extensive needs study that identified deficiencies in its current information systems, the impact of those deficiencies on its world-wide competitive position, and development of a strategic plan for improving its information technology capabilities. This paper describes the company's activities and experiences with its global information systems.

INFORMATION SYSTEMS: AN OVERVIEW

The purpose of information systems, a group of organized procedures so designed that their execution will provide management with information that supports the decision-making process, is critical to an organization's strategic planning, and managerial and organizational control. In today's corporate environment virtually all information systems are computer-based, thereby enhancing the timeliness of the information.

When linked to business planning, information systems must be related to strategic issues; they must be consistent with the organization's business priorities. When an enterprise operates in the international arena, as an international, multinational or transnational company, the information systems' design and operation must reflect that corporate structure. In any of the commom corporate forms for companies operating in non-domestic markets, a basic tenet of the global strategy is to achieve competitive advantages through global-scale operations. Their information systems must be developed based on the operating principle that it is to function as a world-wide system. This, of course, does not negate regional or local components of the system.

The development of international information systems has been focused in recent years on supporting transnational strategies and integrating global business activities through the close cooperation and interdependence among the organization's foreign (internationally based) subsidiaries and corporate headquarters. Ives and Jarvenpaa[1] have defined a global information technology application as one that contributes to an organization's achieving its global business strategy by using information technology platforms to store, transmit and manipulate data (or information) across cultural environments. They thereby identify four elements of global information technology (IT): the linkage of global IT to global business strategy, information technology platforms, international data sharing, and cultural environments.

To develop effective international information systems, and the infrastructure to support them, management needs to understand the global environment in which the company is operating. If the system is developed without an understanding of the overall market forces (business drivers) it cannot be responsive to the decisions management must make when dealing with those forces. Essential elements in developing an appropriate international information systems infrastructure include a corporate strategy for competing in the global environment, an organizational structure appropriate for pursuing the strategy, the management issues regarding the implementation of the strategies, and the appropriate technology platform for operating the system.

ORGANIZATIONAL FRAMEWORKS

When operating beyond its national borders, a company will take on, purposely or by default, one of four organizational forms. Each of these forms has a significant impact on the strategies to be followed, and the information systems required to achieve those strategies.

An *international* corporation will become a "domestic exporter" where the parent company's knowledge and capabilities are exploited through world-wide diffusion and adaptation. The global strategy is characterized by heavy centralization of corporate activities in the home country of origin.

A *multinational* corporation will follow a decentralized information system strategy. The architecture will reflect independent facilities at the parent and at its subsidiaries. There will be a low level of integration among independent databases with direct and simple communication links between parent and subsidiaries for the transfer of financial and legal information. Management will be local in nature with little parent control.

The *global* corporation will pursue a centralized information systems strategy. Information systems facilities will be shared and centralized with the parent. The subsidiaries will provide some support. There will be the need for large and shared databases with the subsidiaries maintaining some specialized ones. Information systems architecture will be a parent-subsidiary network of multiple regional nodel networks. Management would be predominantly centrally coordinated.

A *transnational* corporation will follow an information systems strategy that is both integrated and distributed. Facilities for the promotion of this strategy will reflect interdependence between parent and subsidiary. Databases will be distributed with global networks providing the necessary connectivity across the whole worldwide organization. Management responsibility will stress a sharing of responsibility and authority with a team orientation.

COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE

The use of information technology to improve a company's operations, from the automation of its records-keeping to the automation of its production processes through computer-aided manufacturing, has become the centerpiece of decision-making. By effectively using information technology, including databases, networks, and decision support and expert systems, information can be accessed from many different locations simultaneously, information can be sent and received virtually anywhere, and generalists often can do the work formerly required of specialists.

The competitive environment requires a competitive response. Networked information systems, properly implemented, make it possible for companies to operate in that environment by responding quickly and economically to a wide range of opportunities. In some instances the company may find that forming business alliances with customers, suppliers, former competitors, consultants and government agencies on a global scale significantly enhances the scope of their opportunities.

Companies have a competitive advantage when they provide their customers with more value, or the same value at a lower price, than their competitors. An information system can have a significant strategic impact if it helps a company achieve these objectives in an intelligent and responsive way. O'Brien[2] refers to such response capabilities as agile competition, the ability of a company to operate profitably in a competitive environment when there are continual and predictable changes in customer opportunities. By linking information technology to the strategic planning process, companies as diverse as Citibank, Merrill Lynch, the Gillette Company, and American Express Travel Related Services[3] have achieved strong competitive advantages by developing information systems that support and advance their corporate strategies, thereby becoming leaders, both in product and profit, in their respective industries.

Certainly, investments in information technology can result in the development of new or unique products and services which, in turn, can create new business opportunities. Companies are continually attempting to differentiate themselves from their competitors. Those investments can facilitate a company's "locking in" customers and suppliers by establishing new or reinforced business relationships with them. If effective, these relationships serve to "lock out" competitors. Well designed and operationally effective information systems, when used in concert with strategic planning, can facilitate that differentiation in products and services. Innovation and quick response are cornerstones of success in the corporate environment. The synergy between information technology and strategic planning, which should contribute significantly to achieving those attributes, is absolutely critical for companies operating in the global environment.

THE INTERNATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

The dynamic nature of global competition, rapid in its pace, has nurtured the evolutionary process of organizations restructuring themselves to exploit their capabilities to ensure their continued success and survival. A key factor in the restructuring is the need for better awareness of cross-cultural issues. The organizational structure adopted can have a significant impact on achieving and maintaining that awareness.

Global information needs to be specified at two levels: regional and national. Because of the need for regional integration and coordination, strategic information must be collected not only on a regular basis, but also in a format that facilitates meaningful comparisons. The demands made upon subsidiary managers in terms of reporting requirements to headquarters need to be designed in the least onerous manner. Equally important, information systems must allow for timely dissemination of reported findings from the parent back to the subsidiaries so that the parent-subsidiary relationship is viewed as an equal partnership.

Information system that operate in a world-wide environment must reflect national regulations regarding implementation of information systems. There are several manifestations of regulation that exist regarding data flows: some host countries require that personnel records, payroll information and credit records be processed and maintained locally (see Kane and Ricks)[4]. Others do not permit data embedded in the subsidiary's database to be directly accessed on-line, as noted by Chandran, Phatak and Sambharya[5]. Still in others, these authors also note, corporate databases must be registered with a national information agency. Because of this, they are subject to audit and inspection. Finally, some host countries will not allow the transmission of data to national environments where regulation is less stringent.

The architect of an information system may be confronted with requirements for the use of locally manufactured equipment. Access to leased lines owned by local postal, telephone and telegraph agencies may be restricted. Interconnectivity also may be restricted. This may lead to problems of inconsistencies with regard to technical standards.

Phillips, Calantone and Lee[6] describe a behavioral process through which cultural factors can affect the process of adopting global information systems. Their discussion is most relevant to the subsidiary receiving the information technology. They argue that the greater the ease in adopting a system, as perceived by the recipient, the more likely such information technology will be viewed as being useful. This, in turn, implies that the recipient's general attitude toward adopting a particular system or technology will be more positive. Finally, a more positive attitude increases the likelihood of the recipient actually adopting the particular information system. In addition, cultural affinity, the degree to which rules, customs and communications of foreign culture resemble doing business in the parent culture, also will have a positive effect on the recipient's perceived ease in adopting the information system under consideration.

When expanding into the global arena management is confronted with an array of new decisions that, in turn, require new information and the mechanics for delivering that information. In that same manner, management should rethink its traditional operations, procedures and practices. Schultheis and Sumner[7] have identified several principles that a company should consider when undertaking the process of reengineering itself: organize around outcomes, not tasks; have those who use the output of a process perform the process; treat geographically dispersed units as if they were centralized; link parallel activities *during*, not at the end of, the process; and capture information *once* at the source.

The difficulty of reengineering is that it challenges, and in many instances eliminates, traditional operating procedures, functions, tasks and methods. However, to stay with established practices simply because they have been used for a long period of time and workers are comfortable with them is not rational in a rapidly changing business environment.

GLOBAL SYSTEMS DEVELOPMENT

When a company intends to develop and implement a global information system it should first develop a strategic information systems plan. The plan should include an evaluation of the effectiveness of the organization's existing information technology (IT) capabilities as they relate to supporting its business strategies. The planning process should include a comprehensive review of the IT infrastructure, including the quality and viability of existing systems, technology being used, spending levels for all aspects of IT, and the overall skills levels within the organization. An evaluation of the current environment provides an opportunity for identifying where improvements can be made effectively in the organization's overall IT infrastructure, and where strategic IT investments can be made to align information capabilities with the overall business strategies. The plan should define where global information systems can be used to give the company a distinct competitive advantage in a rapidly changing global marketplace. Once developed, the strategic information systems plan becomes senior management's roadmap to implementing IT strategies.

Senior management support and involvement is critical to the success of a global information system. It is essential that an executive steering committee be established to set project objectives, to monitor progress, and to resolve issues between or among various organizational groups. To ensure a global buy-in from all those groups, the executive steering committee must have both domestic and international representation. It is the committee's responsibility to ensure that the systems being developed are consistent with and support the organization's business strategies.

In addition to the executive steering committee, the project organization must include business and IT line managers who are viewed as experts in their respective areas, and are empowered to make decisions on behalf of the areas for which they are responsible. Depending on the scope of the project, cross-cultural teams should be established to provide not only skills needed to develop the global system, but also to facilitate an understanding of the cultural differences that will impact the success of the project.

A CORPORATE CASE STUDY

Faced with a changing corporate structure and with the realization of greater competition in the global marketplace, a major record company reviewed its position in the industry and recognized the need for updating its global strategy. For many years the company had allowed its subsidiaries to operate autonomously and had been successful with that approach. Talent was being discovered, product was getting to market, and profits were flowing to the headquarters. However, over time the approach led to significant duplication of effort, little sharing of critical information, and spiraling information systems (IS) costs. Each affiliate addressed common problems in slightly different (or in some instances very different) ways. The company was quickly finding itself in a position where it could not keep up with the demands of the market for new and creative product. The need for an updated approach was becoming apparent.

Management identified four areas of "difficulty" in improving its capabilities to meet the developing information needs: planning a system appropriate to the company's global strategies, structuring the organization of the systems and business units, resolving implementation issues, and selecting the right technical platform.

Any new business strategy would have to more closely align the headquarters with the subsidiaries, while still allowing the affiliates to be responsive to their local needs. There had to be a greater focus on product development, customer service and talent relations. Timely information sharing of global decision support was deemed critical, as was the need to maximize outstanding global resources, both human and product. A move toward the transnational business strategy was underway, but senior management recognized that the information systems were not in place to support the strategy.

The alignment of the IS with the business strategy was recognized as a critical factor to the success of this new approach and, as such, a review of the existing information systems was undertaken. The results of the study were not unexpected: the old, multinational strategy had taken its toll on the organization and numerous systems shortcomings were identified. Back office systems for financial management had been the focus of the local organizations, but different approaches to the systems requirements had been followed resulting in disparate financial systems at most subsidiaries. This made consolidation of financial information and the resulting support of decisions arduous tasks. Strategic systems supporting distribution/logistics, manufacturing, warehousing, and royalties payments were found to be old systems built on aging technology. The systems were not integrated and did not have the flexibility to respond to the changing requirements of the industry. Virtually no office automation or groupware existed. All of the findings called for a significant investment in IS to upgrade their position and align with the business strategy.

After the systems review IS management defined a strategy for upgrading systems that was in line with, and supportive of, the new business strategy. A multi-year plan for new systems development and implementation was presented to corporate executives. The system strategy focused on three major areas: financial; warehousing and product distribution; and, for later detailed study, commissions. It called for standardized information sharing tools and techniques, common systems to be put in place for core business processes, and the use of emerging technologies. Package solutions would be used when available, but if not available a custom system would be developed. The goal was to support the industry specific functionality and provide flexibility to support the changing business environment. "Quick hit" systems were identified to facilitate the development process and to keep enthusiasm high throughout the long development process.

The next challenge to face management was gaining acceptance of the strategy throughout all subsidiaries. The fear of the subsidiaries, that corporate headquarters was taking away autonomy, had to be addressed. A corporate Chief Information Officer (CIO) position was established to show executive level commitment to the plan, and to provide a focal point of central leadership and responsibility. The CIO's role was (is) to oversee the implementation of the new strategy and to garner the resources across all countries in which the company had operations to ensure the success of the systems efforts. Workshops were held world-wide to explain the new strategy and its benefits to the subsidiaries. The presentations included a discussion of the company's approach to funding the systems development and implementation activities. That approach called for corporate funding with chargebacks to the subsidiaries based on various formulas.

In that way, no subsidiary's budget would be adversely impacted when there were no direct benefits from the systems development and implementation activities to that subsidiary. These workshops proved successful in getting everyone "on board" with the new approach, and paving the way for successful implementation.

Providing a common groupware solution was one of the first steps in implementing the new strategy. Communication was regarded as essential in an effort of this magnitude, so the LAN/WAN infrastructure, was addressed immediately. Ensuring that the people in the organization were provided with mechanisms to communicate effectively allowed the other development efforts to get started, and showed company employees throughout the world that global implementations were possible.

Selecting hardware and software vendors was also critical in executing the strategy. Computing power, technology architectures, global support and prior experience were all major factors in the selection process. Over the course of multi-year development and implementation these decisions have been revisited often. Advances in technology played a significant role in the applications development decisions.

For each of the business systems to be implemented, project teams and steering committees were formed and a common implementation methodology was chosen. In an effort to ensure that country specific requirements were being addressed, cross-country and regional project teams were formed. Steering committees were established to monitor the projects, and chairpersons were selected for each committee. This selection was an important step in that it sent a message to the teams about the commitment of management at all levels to the process, and management's intent to include the subsidiaries in the process in meaningful ways.

The project teams defined the functionality to be included in the core application and the functionality that would be site specific. The requirements meetings gave the headquarters and subsidiary organizations a chance to discuss common business processes and to decide on common systems solutions. The IS project was, in fact, leading the business through a time of significant change. As the country representatives met they came to better understand each other's businesses and concerns, and were able to structure the systems to meet common goals. The common methodology was important to the process. Many people involved on the business side are users of more than one system and are directly involved in the development of those systems. The common approach to system development let the users become familiar with the process so that they might understand their roles and responsibilities - and their importance to the success of the total systems development and implementation activities.

Implementation of the new information systems is now underway. As set forth in the multi-year plan for new systems development and implementation, the implementation schedule calls for a phased-in aproach to ensure the company's ability to adapt to the extensive changes in procedures and processes. Following a philosophy of taking small steps before making large leaps, each system as it is installed is monitored closely to identify any problems, either human or technical, that might cause inefficiencies or failures in the overall IS strategies, and to take immediate corrective action.

IN SUMMARY

Corporate management is faced with new and changing demands when the organization is engaged in the global arena. The information demands for an array of new types of decisions require technologies for delivering that information. New factors replace or augment traditional factors influencing the development and implementation of global information systems. A host of global, regional and local requirements significantly impact the technologies employed.

Changes to the basic structure of the organization may be required to function effectively, and be competitive, in the world-wide marketplace. More than ever before, all component organizational units throughout the company and across international borders, must be contributors to the development of business strategies, and to the application of information technologies to fulfill management's decision-making informational requirements.

By developing a strategic plan for using IT, and involving the entire organization in its development and implementation, a company in the entertainment industry is achieving new levels of competitive success. It has considered the relevant factors, and is proving that successfully developing and implementing global information systems is not a fiction.

ENDNOTES

Note: Carl A. Scheraga, Fairfield University, and Sangeev Nagrath, Price Waterhouse, significantly contributed to the research and case materials included in this paper.

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MYSTERY SHOPPING: A STRATEGIC APPROACH TO ASSESSMENT OF QUALITY EDUCATION AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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Abstract

Marketers, especially those involved in retailing and banking, have long recognized the valuable role that mystery shoppers can play in an evaluation of service delivery. Mystery shopping has been used for decades by both small and large organizations which desire insightful, real world tests of the quality of their service delivery. Spurred on by the success that retailers have enjoyed through their mystery shopping - personnel assessment programs, others are turning to mystery shopping as a tool to assess the quality of service delivery in other, non-traditional retailing roles. Universities and schools, faced with increasing pressure to assure quality education and service delivery, are prime candidates for using mystery shopping techniques in their formal assessment and quality assurance programs. Recommendations are made concerning the implementation of mystery shopping programs at universities given the experience of retailers, bankers and one such effort at a university.

INTRODUCTION

A student walked into a university office seeking clarification of a university procedure. The employee in the office directed the student to another office across the campus. The student was instructed to ask for a particular individual, who the student was told, would probably be the individual on campus who could provide the information desired. The student left the office, walked across the campus to the office and asked for the individual. The individual was not there. The student was told to come back later. The student went back later, only to be told that another office on campus was the appropriate office on campus at which to get the information needed. The student was directed across campus to another office. Once there, the student was told that the individual asked for was out of town, and again, the student was asked to return.

In still another scenario, a student desired information on pursuing a particular major. The student was directed to meet with a particular professor to obtain the information desired. The student went to the professor's office, where the professor dutifully informed the student that the student would have to return the next day; during the professor's official office hour, since his office hour was up. The student returned the next day at the beginning of the professor's official office hour. The professor was swapping jokes with another faculty member, so the student stood at the door for over one hour waiting to talk to the professor. Finally, the visitor left and the student entered. The student reminded the professor of the purpose of her visit. The professor looked at his watch, announced that his office hour was over, and asked the student to return another day. She left.

In another scenario which will not shock many in higher education. A potential graduate student seeking information on a program was told by an individual in the dean's office to meet with a particular professor who directed the program. The student went to the professor's office and asked for information on the program. The student was told to return during the professor's office hour and that the student would receive the information requested at that time. Indeed, the professor made the student an official appointment, noting on the calendar, the day and time the student would return. The student lived approximately 50 miles from campus. On the appointed day, the student drove the 50 miles and arrived in time for the appointment. Unbelievably, the professor was too busy to see her that day and told her that she would have to return another day.

In still another, more bewildering situation, a graduate student, newly accepted into a graduate program, went to the director's office seeking information on her intended program. She was directed to come during the next week's registration period, during which time the director assured the student that her program would be reviewed in detail since it was the director's policy that such advising was to take place only during registration week. Returning the next week as directed, the student was informed by the director that things were too busy, due to registration, and directed that she should return in two weeks for the program review. Two weeks later she returned and was told by the director that students could receive such information only during the week of registration! She would have to return during the next term's registration to get her program review. The student pointed out to the director that it was the director who told her to come in during this particular week. The director told her that it was a mistake to have told her to come back, and that she would have to come back during registration for the next term if she wanted the advising review. The student left the office, and amazingly, returned the next semester for the advising review.

Most of those who have been in higher education for any length of time can recount numerous scenarios similar to these. Such scenarios, perhaps too common in the halls of academe, can negatively impact the progress and growth of institutions where such customer service is allowed to exist. The importance of customer service to a university's success cannot be overstated. In today's competitive environment, where enrollments are stagnant at best, where competition from nontraditional competitors (e.g., business sponsored educational institutions, dedicated institutions) is growing, and where new delivery mechanisms (e.g., Internet delivery) are presenting a new, virtual competitive environment, the importance of satisfying customers is becoming paramount.

MYSTERY SHOPPING'S ROLE IN MARKETING MANAGEMENT

Acquisition marketing techniques in which marketers seek out new markets or seek to attract customers of competitors have been around for some time. Due to the competitive nature of educational markets, and the fact that it is cheaper and easier to keep existing customers than to attract new customers, marketers and educators concerned with pursuing a goal of long-term growth, have turned their attention to retention marketing efforts (Budden & Lake, 1992). A major purpose of retention marketing activities is to ensure a satisfied customer and ultimately a return visit to the marketer for additional purchases. In an effort to assess effectiveness, a variety of methods have been proffered to evaluate advertising and other promotional ventures (Dalrymple & Parsons, 1990). However, methods of evaluating on-site (in-store) retention efforts appear less developed.

The use of mystery shopping as a tool for gathering retention marketing information has increased during the past decade (Budden & Lake, 1990). The offering of mystery shopping services by research firms is no longer a rarity (Tellin, 1991; Wolfensberger, 1991).

The use of mystery shopping by bankers to assess personnel performance and service delivery is widespread (Brown, 1988; Fall-Matranga, 1989; Lerner, 1991, Sanfilippo & Romano, 1990). Now, however, bankers realize that mystery shopping can go beyond its traditional research focus, and be useful in a variety of areas. Indeed, Leeds (1995) reports that federal regulatory enforcement agencies are recommending that all banks incorporate mystery shopping into their assessment efforts, especially those efforts taken in response to federal regulations (e.g., Community Reinvestment Act, Truth In Lending Law).

In addition, Cantrell (1994) identifies several banks using mystery shopping in assessments of investment products. It should come as no surprise that its use by service providers is increasing (Kennedy, 1991).

Mystery shopping has been used in variety of assessment efforts. It has been used in personnel evaluation efforts (Brantley, 1989; Schlossberg, 1991), incentive program development (Brokaw, 1991; Dorman, 1994; Schlossberg, 1991), training program testing efforts (Brokaw, 1991; Morrall, 1994; Tellin, 1991), and in testing or assessing the level of quality in service efforts (Brown, 1991; Fall-Mantranga, 1989; Leeds, 1992). Wolfsenberger (1991) describes how a mystery shopping program can be used to instill a customer perspective in employees. And finally, and more to the point, mystery shopping can be used in an assessment of retention efforts (Liswood, 1988).

As Budden and Lake (1992) mention, shopping employees can provide a quick and easy method of assuring that employee performance expectations are being met. As they mention, the needs of the institution, the customers and the employees need to be considered when developing a mystery shopping program. The areas on which assessments will be performed need to be delineated after a careful review of the program's objectives. Perhaps, as Budden and Lake (1992) point out, the most important factor on which a program should be based is the expectation that customer needs are satisfied, which will lead to the attainment of organizational goals.

MYSTERY SHOPPING IN AN ACADEMIC SETTING

In an effort to measure the impact of mystery shopping in an academic setting, a preliminary evaluation was performed on a university in the southeast. The mystery shopping was conducted as part of a class project to assess various areas of service delivery deemed important by the members of the class. The course involved was a marketing research course, taught by a faculty member who is not a co-author of this paper. All students were of at least junior classification. The results of the study, to be explored in a later paper, were not surprising. What perhaps was also not surprising was the reaction of some faculty and administrators who were appalled that such a project had been conducted. Indeed, there were proponents of such an assessment, and opponents of such an assessment.

As an attempt to judge the use of mystery shopping as an assessment of service and educational delivery in higher education, a phone survey was undertaken. The survey was of fifty business school deans or associate/assistant deans who were contacted by phone, and questioned about their use of mystery shopping. Specifically, the fifty respondents were administrators of business programs accredited by the AACSB – The International Association for Management Education. The fifty were randomly drawn from the 326 accredited institutions. They were questioned as to the use of mystery shopping within their colleges and universities to assess service and teaching delivery.

The findings will not surprise many. Not one school's dean reported using mystery shopping in any assessment capacity. Indeed, a couple mentioned that they thought such an effort may be illegal in their states and as such would never attempt to undertake such an effort. One dean was totally unfamiliar with the concept and asked if any organization anywhere was practicing such an assessment of service delivery. He had never heard of mystery shopping.

While no one would argue that the survey was representative of business schools in general, the finding that not one accredited institution utilized mystery shopping is significant. It appears that the use of mystery shopping as an assessment tool among businesses, especially among financial institutions, is much more widespread than among units of higher education. Perhaps, this is another example of corporate practices preceding the efforts of those engaged in higher education. Quality improvement techniques, widely practiced in the real world for decades, finally began making inroads into higher education only in the last five years.

SUMMARY

Mystery shopping of faculty and staff may be able to provide assessment information that is unobtainable any other way. It offers benefits that may result in the improved delivery of education and service. However, its use will not be readily accepted. Undoubtedly, faculty and staff will want to discuss mystery shopping methodology, and any measurement instruments utilized by the shoppers.

Future research should focus on whether any schools are using mystery shopping. The use and the results of such programs need to be explored. Future research may want to investigate faculty and staff attitudes with regard to the use of mystery shopping. Questions that need to be addressed would include 1) who is to conduct the shopping, 2) how will the shoppers be trained and who will train them, 3) what kind of instrument will they use to measure effort, 4) what criteria will be evaluated (e.g., Adherence to office hours, personality, phone manners, etc), 5) how the results will be used in annual evaluations, 6) whether the results will be used in tenure and promotion decisions, and how, and finally, 7) who will be privy to the findings. In other words, will they be accessible to students? Will they be accessible to administrators? Will they be used in the annual merit evaluations? What about their impact on tenure and promotion decisions? These concerns will undoubtedly need to be addressed prior to the implementation of any formal mystery shopping effort.

Mystery shopping holds promise for educational and service delivery. It also threatens the status quo. It threatens the old way of doing things. The merits of mystery shopping need to be weighed against the downsides of mystery shopping. Mystery shopping has proven useful in banking, and a variety of retail organizations, as a tool to assess and improve the level of service delivery. Perhaps it can be useful to those in higher education as well.

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ORGANIZATIONAL RESTRUCTURING OF INDUSTRIAL ENTERPRISES IN POLAND - CONCEPTION OF CHANGES. (TEACHING PROBLEMS VERSUS PRACTICAL SOLUTIONS)

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Abstract

Polish enterprises have been going through the difficult period of restructuri-zation and adjustment to the conditions of market economy. This painful process of adaptation relies to a large existent on the assimilation of techniques and strategies of foreign enterprises. What makes the essential elements of the adjustment to the new conditions is: lowering of the costs, restructurization and organizational changes. Any transformations must be carried out in a systematic way according to the conceptions and principles in force. They should be introduced by compotent managers, leaders well - acquainted with modern methodologies and trends of organizational conduct. They must be perfectly aware of the fact that the future is not going to be the simple extension of the past and the structure of each economy branch and its rules will be changed as well. Additionally, it should not be forgotten that the proceeding integration with European Union will have then no other choice as to act in conditions of global competition.

These are the main resons for radical changes taking place in the approach to organization and management of future enterprises as well as to education of specialists in the sphere of management and marketing. The analysis of the organizational situation of Polish enterprises in this paper points to the basic directions of necessary changes in their management. Some conceptions in this sphere, mainly Lean Management and Business Process Reengineering mark the standards of conduct today and determine the programmes of education of students - managers - to - be.

ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONAL SITUATION OF ENTERPRISES

A formal organizational structure (the so-called system of general regulations) is presented in varions ways. It is illustrated, first of all, by division of tasks and competences, descriptions of posts and by office instructions. Particularly important regulations are included in the Rules and Regulations of an enterprise, in organizational regulations, working regulations, lists of tasks and the like. The best known means of presenting structures, however, is an organizational scheme which, in the form of a chart, informs about existing regulations. It shows the chief hierarchic interdependencies, organizational units and thier mutual relations. It introduces order, shapes situations and provides instructions how to act in certain situations. The organizational structure, then, serves as the main tool of running an enterprise.

The scheme of the organizational structure in most enterprises is traditional and classic, in which individual chief functions are realized by the organizational units grouped in the appropriate sections.

Members of the Board supervise and coordinate their working according to the appropriate functions such as: the general function, the technical function, the labour function and the economic-financial function. It is due to specialization according to functions that the particular sections are homogeneous, of wide formal competences, in a given area, and of possible efficient utilization of their resources. The developed organizational solutions are the result of dividing functions and tasks, and, then, of integrating them into the organizational units brought into being. Accepted and given detailed destriptions, series of functions and tasks as well as organizational principles usually legibly and clearly mark off the sphere of activity of the particular sections and their organizational units. The basic principle is the principle of one-man management which is obligatory at each level of an official hierarchy. There remains the problem of determining the most favourable relations between the detailed and general regulations in an enterprise. In general, one should aim at replacing the detailed regulations with the general ones as long as the balance between changeability of situation and a degree of general regulations (principle of substitution) is reached. The more changeable situations are to be met in the enterprise, the less detailed regulations can be replaced with the general ones.

Simultaneously, one of the aims of the organizational structure is allocation and disposing workers in such a way to make a course of work effective and logical to the highest extent. The structure is organized around the chief aims of the enterprise providing the optimal number and quality of both managers and workers.

TENDENCIES IN ENTERPRISE MANAGEMENT

In the practice of forming organizational solutions, organizing, as a rule function of management, is a continuous process. Rarely does it consist, however, in designing a completely new structure, it lies in carrying out fragmentary reorganizations in such a way to make it possible to monitor changes of the environment and to adapt the enterprise to the functioning within it, within the market economy.

The tendency of the last years has been to modernize the organizational sctructures in such a way as to fulfil at least the following conditions :

- *condition of flexibility*, namely an ability of the structure to adjust to the changeable conditions of the outer environment and to take opportunities and avoid dangers of the market,
- *condition of integration*, i.e. joining tasks and functions, grouping them in one organizational unit and avoiding to disperse them and, consequently, responsibility. The process of integration is directed towards task structure supporting the flexibility of the whole structure. Forming of the changeable task groups should become a common practice in the structure,
- *condition of ' Lean Management'*, i. e. making the structure look leaner, or taking out of the basic structure all kinds of accompanying activity, both service and commercial activity, through the organisational and legal changes, mainly on the basis of the holding structure with the share of staff and outer investors.

At the same time, the efficient management of an enterprise of extended organizational structure is possible providing that the elementary economic-financial figures, resulting from the accomplishment of tasks, from the costs paid and the incomes obtained, are identified within the particular organisational units and at the lower levels of the organisational structure. That is why whenever it is possible, one should aim at decomposing the functions and tasks into the specific organisational units combining them with accounting system, mainly that of costs remembering that the costs occur only inside the enterprise, while the income is outside of it, at the point where the enterprise meets the environment and it usually depends to a great extent on someone else: politics, outer organisations, customers or a price and tax system.

Having in view the situation in which the elementary links of the structure function on the basis of their own economic-fanancial account (the managing one, not necessarily according to the financial-accounting regulations), gives as the result, reliable information about their functioning and, finally, about the possibilities and conditions of taking these units out of the structure of the enterprise. It also enables the enterprises to identyify the bad aspects of their functioning and to take opportunities of possible development of extra earning activity still before becoming independent. The gradual process of elimination of the chosen units ussualy allows to check whether an income of the unit eliminated at least equals its costs and if it is possible to reach a point of balance, namely the profit threshold. Only the positive balance of income over expenditures can provide a rational basis for starting the process of making the given unit economically and financially independent, in the chosen legal form. It is also necessary to prepare for them the proper business plans to plan, with the relevant dose of probability, the future of the units being made independent.

Carring out, on a large scale, an analysis of tasks and costs dealing with them, for the all important enterprise units, namely the units eliminated according to their territory and tasks, leads towards clear and reliable documentary evidence for them., so to say, to the 'cleaness' of the costs of business activity of the whole enterprise with a possibility of influencing them effectively.

An active influence on the costs, through planning and controlling them as well as introducing controlling to the management, considerably changes the organisational solutions in use. Autonomy of the organisational units is introduced and management is based on the aims and usually supported by the system of information technology. The infomation system must be complex and integrated supervise tasks and the costs of the execution in a real time. A philosophy of management is directed towards the recivers, both internal- other employees and sections , and external- receivers of the products and the customers. The development of customer option seems to be the key issue in the further managing of the enterprise, after restructuring in the conditions of the market economy. Making the enterprise independent in respect of its organisation, decisions, economc activity and finance, allows, on the one hand, to change the traditional style of the management, on the other hand, to make the employees directly interested in the operating results. All the changes being realized must be technically and economically justifiable and possible and must be be executed according to the law in force.

CHANCES OF ' LEAN MANAGEMENT' IN POLISH ENTERPRISES

In spite of certain improvement, the Polish enterprises, especially the State ones, still function with the considerable ' overweight'.They are characterized, as it was described above, by the functional structure with sections of the great number of levels in the organisational hierarchy, by centralization of the management as well as by complicated ways of the flow of information, formalism and a small scope of delegating powers to the lower levels. The culture of the enterprise is characterized by individualism and by a clear division into the managers and workers. There is a lack of funds for research and progress. It is the products option not the marketing option which dominates. There occurs the phenomenon of overinvestment and of a small degree of utilization of the plant possessed. As a rule, there is the surplus of property in the social sphere. The level of employment often exeedes the needs in relation to the size of production. The positive phenomena are as follows: increase in sales, appearance of the elements of the modern management methods and techniques, increase in the number of implemented computer systems that support the management, and the widespread interest in providing quality systems and their certification.

Therefore in can be assumed that after coping with the problems of restructuring, the Polish enterprises will have to improve their competitiveness through the use of the conceptions of 'Lean Management' or 'Business Process Reengineering'. The former is less risky, yet it is based on the mental and cultural characteristics which are not very common in Poland. The problem is that evolutionary development, long-term activity strategies do not lie in the nature of our managers. However, the awareness that due to the system of 'Lean Management' the enterprise can become ' leaner' is considerably more and more common. Moreover, the enterprise will already remain 'lean' because this system makes it impossible to 'put on weight''. The experiences of the Western firms signify that the accomplishments employed by the effective companies are usually relatively simple and adapted to the requirements of a situation and, particulary, to employees' characteristics.

The essence of 'Lean Management' system is a simple combination of high productivity, efficient organization and quality of production. In the Polish enterprises, 'Lean Management' refers mainly to the structure of the enterprise as a whole. In the case of the immediate autonomical problems, traditional fragmentary solutions are good enough. Yet, as far as the strategic, long-term dangers are concerned, only a complex reconstruction of the enterprise can be efficient. Since it is only the enterprise 'made lean' that, throught the integration of the technical and commercial functions, can secure permanent existence and remunerativeness for itself and simultaneously, it can maximize profits, make costs most favourable, increase flexibility of activity and reduce binding of capital to put, in a short time, the product directed to customers on the market. Employing the methods of 'Lean Management' requires that they should be spread consequently in the whole enterprise. Their introduction combines with formulating the clear and ambitious objectives. The basic conditions, however, is to develop new attitudes of not only the management but also the whole Staff. 'Making the enterprise lean' is accompanied by concentrating one's attention on the relation towards customers and suppliers, simplification of structures and processes as well as the formation of small teams.

In managing the enterprise that can be considered as the one, that, as a whole, undergoes the process of 'becoming leaner', the following rules, methods and systems must be employed:

- *Staff*- managing the staff based on the conviction that it is them who determine the success of the enterprise
- *Marketing/ Development* - market option employed consequently in all matters and areas, employing Simultaneons Engineering
- *Production* - team work, considerable activity standardization, work rotation, employing the Kaizen principle
- *Organization* - flat structure, clear and short ways of a flow of information, delegating powers to the lower levels
- *Suppliers* - varions connections at different stages, use of 'Just in Tme' system
- *Quality* - use of 'Total Quality Control' and 'Failure Mode and Effect Analysis', i.e. the method of analising causes and effects of drawbacks, functioning of 'Quality Sets'

The developing market economy in Poland, a rapid increase in competition and advancing market saturation extort simpler and simpler organization from the enterprise and the simplification of its structures and processes. Open and flexisible organizational structures become indispensable. Thus, hopes should be set on the new types of organization and of the philosophy of management, which, due to the complex connections of inner and outer relations, just as the highly complex organisms, will be characterized by high flexibility and an ability to learn, and hence, an ability to adjust to the diffcult changeable conditions of the environment.

The problem whether Lean Management conception can be realized in Poland will soon be solved in practice. The rapidly changing environment, progress in the market economy and, extorted by it, the new ways of management, more and more often implemented in the enterprises, will determine their image and situation as well as their future organizational and economic - financial conditions.

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STRATEGIC BUSINESS ANALYSIS ANALYSIS AND ALTERNATIVES (INSTAL CO. CASE REVISITED)

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Abstract

The paper develops the case presented at WACRA '96 Conference and published in Volume IX of the Selected Papers, "Interactive Teaching and Emerging Technologies"[Sibilski, 1996]. On the basis of the analysis performed in that paper the diagnosis of the strategic position of the company is presented and the proposals for the directions in which the company shall develop are formulated. Then the list of practical steps that should be taken in order to achieve the desired development is created and discussed. Both papers form together a complete cycle - from description through analysis and diagnosis to recommendations for the actions to take.

INTRODUCTION

The situation presented in the case relates to the year 1991 in Poland. It is the period when the transition from centrally planned to market economy starts to get impetus. The basic facts about Instal Co. at that time are as follows. It is a state-owned enterprise, serving the industry and public institutions, such as the power networks of cities of south-western Poland with electrical equipment and installations. Instal also sells electrical equipment, such as casings and switchboards, to other installers and the machine industry all over Poland. Instal has about 1500 employees. The turnover in 1990 was about $US 17 millions.

Based on the information presented in the full description of the company [Sibilski, 1996] the following three business ideas of Instal were there formulated:

To design and supplyelectrical installation services to the industry and public institutions in the south-western Poland, with own personnel and own products. This business idea was thereafter called "Complete installations".

1. To design, produce, market and supply equipment for installations to other electrical installers or end customers having ther own installation capacity, all over the country. This business idea was thereafter called "Installation equipment".
2. To design, produce, market and supply electrical components or subsystems to the Polish and foreign machine industry. This business idea was thereafter called "OEM" according to the common English expression "Original Equipment Manufacturer".

Then the relations of each business idea to different external or internal factors (or parties) were presented. Basic financia data were also supplemented. Finally, the following questions were stated:

1. Are the business ideas of the company strong enough to be competitive?
2. In what direction shal the company develop and why?
3. What practical steps should be taken in order to achieve the desired development?

The present paper tries to give a proposal for the answers to these questions.

POSITIONS OF THE BUSINESS IDEAS OF INSTAL CO.

By a position of a business idea is understood a set of relations of the business idea to possible factors (or parties) that influence (or are influenced by) this business idea. These relations for each business idea of Instal were extensively described in [Sibilski, 1996]. Now they will be classified into four groups, with three levels of strength in each group:

- relation of type U (from 'underdog'), where the levels of strength have the following meaning:
  U1 - the other party makes it's own independent decisions that influence the company to a minor degree,
  U2 - the other party makes it's own independent decisions that influence the company to a major degree,
  U3 - the other party makes it's own independent decisions that have fatal effect on the company;

- relation of type D (from 'dominance'), where the levels of strength have the following meaning:
  D1 - the company makes it's own independent decisions that influence the other party to a minor degree,
  D2 - " " " " " " " " " " to a major degree,
  D3 - " " " " " " have a fatal effect on the other party;

- relation of type C (from 'competition'), where the levels of strength have the following meaning:
  C1 - the competitor influences the company to a minor degree,
  C2 - " " " " to a major degree,
  C3 - " " " " to a fatal degree;

- relation of type A (from 'alliance'), where the levels of strength have the following meaning:
  A1 - the company and the other party gain by cooperation, however without interdependence,
  A2 - both parties will loose heavily by breaking the relationship,
  A3 - the survival of both parties depends on the continued good relationship.

The positions of the three business ideas of Instal are then as follows:

Interested party	Complete Installations	Installation Equipment	OEM
Market			
Clients	U1	U1	U2
Competitors	C1 *)	C3	C3
Suppliers	U2	U2	U1
Public sector			
General	U3	U3	U3
Demand	U2	U2	U2
External environment	-	U1	U1
Internal environment	-	U1	U1
Interest rates	U2	U2	U2
Currency matters	-	U1	U2
Support	U1	U1	U1
Infrastructure	U1	-	-
Legal structure	U1	U1	U1
Resources			
Management	A2	A2	A2
Personnel	D1	D1	D1
Rights belonging to outsiders	-	-	A1
Items on the balance sheet	U2	U2	U2
Financiers	-	U3	U2

The business environment			
External culture	A2	A1	-
Internal culture	U2	U1	U2
Season & weather	U1	-	-
Breakdown, Fire, Theft	U2	U3	U3

Note *) The competition from foreign suppliers of turn key systems will make the competitive environment much harder in the future, leading to a C2 or C3.

DIAGNOSIS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

The most important general conclusion is that all three business ideas are in a dangerous strategic position indicating that strong actions must be taken. The change in technology, the international competition, the present cumbersome methods of in-company decision making (proper for state-owned firms), the unfavorable tax situation of the state-owned company etc forces Instal to either make strong changes in the strategy or to face a rapid detrimental development.

The three Instal Co. business ideas have different business positions. The ranking list is:

1. "Complete installations",
2. "Installation equipment",
3. "OEM",

showing that the first business idea is stronger then the second etc. This indicates that Instal should give priority to the efforts to improve the first business idea - "Complete installations". The improvement of the other two has to be done with second priority.

Regardless of which way the company goes, great changes will have to be accepted by every single employee of Instal.

GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

Create an Informal Board of External Members to Support the Management

In order to assist and support the management in the necessary process of changes that will have to take place in the company, Instal should create an informal board of experienced business people (state-owned firms do not have (by law) boards of directors, as private firms do. This board should be used for advice, operational reviews, investment matters, business development ideas etc, and should help the management in deciding what to do, how to do it and when to do it.

Create a Consciousness of Crisis in the Company

The business positions of the three different business areas of Instal are, or at least will come under severe pressure from local and international competition. The company has to react to this situation immediately in order to have enough resources to survive.

Most of the employees however have not realized this due to historical reasons ("the company takes care of you" syndrome) and lack of information.

Every change is a mental process where a person passes through the following four steps: 'Denial', 'Resistance', 'Exploration', and 'Commitment'. Everybody has to pass through these four steps. It is obviously desirable to do it as quickly as possible.

Management therefore has to bring the employees from the first stage into the second. This is done by creating a climate of crisis in the company. By telling the employees in a dramatic way that the company has to change in order to survive. Explain the situation and do not hide any important information. This process will create resistance, which has to be met by the management by listening to and discussing with employees and their representatives, in order to bring them into the third stage, where the real cooperation can start.

Inform All Employees and Educate the Future Leaders

The creation of climate of crisis demands a lot of attention to information inside the company. Everybody will feel insecure and therefore needs information. A system to inform every single employee has to be created. It is most likely necessary to appoint a specific person for this task.

In order to take care of the competent employees, who could form the future management, and prevent them from leaving the company in the difficult time, they should be offered an education in managerial techniques.

Privatize the Company

The present system of in-company decision making is not supportive to a company that needs rapid changes. The political intention of the present system is also to make the long term survival of state-owned companies impossible in a competitive environment. Instal should therefore become a privately owned company (i.e. more than 50% of shares in private hands) as soon as possible. The implication of the present (1991) extremely high interest rates in Poland is a very low price of shares (to make the same or better payback on the investment as putting the money in the bank), creating an interesting offer to the management and interested employees.

Split the Company into Two Companies

The future demands on the different business ideas will be so different, that it will be necessary to split the company into two separate companies. One company that will offer "Complete installations" to the market, and another that will offer "Installation equipment" and "OEM". The companies do not necessarily have to have any common part owner. Each company should have their own board elected by the owners and complete management focusing on the specific problems and opportunities of their companies.

Install a Western Economic Information System

The present economic information system, derived from the past times, is not capable to support the management in a competitive environment with enough relevant information. There is no use to spend time and money to improve this system. It is much better to spend the resources of the company to install a modern western type, even if it includes the necessity to educate the personnel in the principles of the new system. Do not wait for instructions from the authorities to find out what to do and how. Look for two new standard systems, one for the service company and one for the customer order based production company. Use the information from the systems and introduce new ways of calculations before and after an order, the monitoring of the allocation of capital within the company etc.

Improve the Purchasing Function of the Company

The value of the purchased material is about 50% of the turnover of Instal. This opens the opportunity to improve the profitability of the companies by acting as professional purchasers. This is especially true in times of high interest rates, when delivery times, the reliability of the delivery times, terms of payments play a very important role, together with quality, performance and price.

Appoint one person in each company to become a purchase manager. Supply them a theoretical and practical education in purchasing.

Carry out a risk management study of Instal

Instal is in a very vulnerable situation in case of fire at the head office or at any of the production buildings. Information will be lost, the production facilities will break down leaving the company in a difficult position, due to the lack of income and the fact that competitors will take the market in the meantime.

Instal should therefore carry out a systematic risk management study of the whole company. Such a study answers, among other, the following questions:

- What will happen, if this unit brakes down?
- How can we diminish the consequences of such an event?
- Are the similar capacities at other companies with which Instal could cooperate in case of a catastrophe?

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR "COMPLETE INSTALLATIONS" BUSINESS AREA

Find Your Niches

Inside this business area there are different niches, such as overhead lines and power supply, installations in industrial firms and installations in public institutions.

The business position of Instal is the strongest in the first niche, less strong in the second and weakest in the third. Therefore Instal should concentrate its efforts to develop the business in that order.

Open up the Renovation Market

The present standard of old electric installations in Polish industry is unacceptable. The fact that things have deteriorated to this extent clearly shows that the present systems of control and maintenance in industry does not work. Here Instal has an opportunity to open up a long lasting "cash cow" market. There is however some resistance to this from the management of the companies, the official inspection authorities etc.

Activate Marketing of Installation Services Towards Major Players

A large part of the installation work in industry will be replaced by turn-key deliveries from major (western) suppliers of industrial production machinery. However also in these cases there is a need for local installations that can be performed by a local company.

The "Complete Installations" company of Instal should therefore carry through a systematic marketing program in order to become the natural partner for major international companies when they deliver new equipment to south-western Poland.

Consider the Purchase of Installation Equipment from Other Suppliers

In order to underline the fact that the two major business areas are separate activities, and to make it clear that the installation business cannot support the production of installation equipment, the "Complete Installations" company should be encouraged to buy the best equipment on the market, regardless of who has produced it.

Act as a Leading Contractor for Smaller Orders

When Instal performs an installation order it leaves the site as it looks when the job is done. The client himself has to organize the cleaning up job, the possible repairs to be done, the painting, the repairs of lawns and hard surfaces of streets and pavements etc.

When performing smaller orders Instal could take upon itself to organize this job and thus act as a main contractor. This does not mean that all this job should be done by the personnel of the company, but by different companies that Instal cooperate with. The important thing is that Instal could achieve in this way a recognition from the customers that "The place looks better when Instal leaves than when they arrived".

Prepare Yourself for the Entrance into the Telecommunication and Cable Tv Market

With references made to other countries, it is a safe prognosis that the telecommunication market is going to explode, due to a tremendous increase of the demand. This development leaves room for many companies to enter the market of telecommunication and different kinds of related installations. Instal should allocate special efforts to be prepared for this market when the development starts.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR "INSTALLATION EQUIPMENT" BUSINESS AREA

Find Your Niches

There are different niches in the "Installation Equipment" business area, and Instal has there different strengths. The strongest position is for simple casings used in most electrical installations that will not really develop in a dramatic way. Simple continuous redesign simplifications to meet customer demands will be necessary. The weakest position is for control equipment, regardless if it is computerized or it is electro mechanical. Here the international competition will be enormous. The marketing actions, starting with a market plan, should be directed to the strongest niches of this business area.

Carry out a Product Evaluation Exercise to See If the Business Area Can Be Made Profitable

The effect of the development described above in combination with the fact that this department is already running at a loss, makes it imperative to carry out a product evaluation to find what products can survive, and in what quantities they can be expected to be sold. The result of this evaluation will give expected revenue of the production plant and will be the basis for the decision about the production capacity level to be kept.

Organize a Basic Streamlining of the Production

In order to improve the profitability of the production immediate actions to streamline the production, reduce costs, reduce delivery time etc. should be taken.

Make Efforts to Become the Agent of One of the Major Companies Supplying Computerized Control Systems

The enormous competition from the major international companies in this field does not necessarily mean that they will start their own companies in Poland. Certainly some companies are interested to have an agent in the market.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR "OEM" BUSINESS AREA

Carry out a Product Evaluation Exercise to See If the Business Area Can Be Made Profitable

Even in this business area a product evaluation has to be made in order to see in what direction the "OEM" business should be directed, and what services can be included in the offer to the market.

Implement ISO 9000 or Similar

In order to be accepted by western companies as a reliable OEM supplier it is necessary to implement a quality system such as the appropriate ISO 9000 standard.

Market the Capacity for Contractual Work

The competitive advantage of Polish companies is their low labor costs compared to western companies. However this advantage is lost in most cases by lower efficiency and quality, inappropriate administration, causing unreliable and long delivery times.

If Instal arrives at western standards regarding quality and services and has very competitive prices, it will have a very good chance to develop the "OEM" business area into more contractual work. A special market plan for this business area should be made.

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APPENDIXES

ABOUT WACRA®...

History

Founded in 1984, the World Association for Case Method Research & Case Method Application (WACRA®) evolved from contacts of professors, researchers, policy-makers, professionals and business executives into a worldwide interdisciplinary organization. These individuals shared the common interest of studying and applying the Case Method in research, teaching, planning, training and development. Professionals and academicians from fifty countries have participated in ten international conferences on Case Method Research & Application: Lausanne, Switzerland (1980), London, UK (1984, 1985, 1987), Waltham (Boston), U.S.A. (1988, 1989), Enschede, Netherlands (1990), Berlin, Germany (1991), Limerick, Ireland (1992), Bratislava, Slovakia - Vienna, Austria (1993), Montreal, Canada (1994), Leysin, Switzerland (1995), Warsaw, Poland (1996), Edinburgh, Scotland (1997) and Marseille, France (1998). The 1999 conference will take place from July 4-7 at the University of Extremadura, Cáceres, Spain. For the year 2000, plans have been made to begin the (pre) conference in Munich, Germany and travel by train - *retracing the famous Orient Express* - via Vienna (Austria) to Budapest (Hungary). The main conference will take place at the Central European University in Budapest. WACRA® is a Non-Profit Corporation, contributions and donations to WACRA® are tax deductible under the U.S. Internal Revenue Code, Section 509(a)(2).

The Case Method

The Case Method can be defined in a broad sense by contrasting it with the lecture method. Instead of textbooks, the Case Method uses partial, historical descriptions of specific situations enabling students to discover and develop their own unique framework for problem-solving. The Case Method achieves this goal efficiently and effectively. Data and information are presented in narrative form to encourage student involvement by solving problems actively, by identifying sources of information necessary for problem-solving, by engaging in critical thinking and through group work. (The group work contributes to the development of individuals able and willing to work collegially, etc.). Although "cases" have been used in one form or another by both law and medicine for a long time, the Case Method in the teaching of management and other disciplines is relatively new. The Harvard Business School is well known for its innovative role in this regard. The method has applications far beyond the managerial, business orientation so familiar to many. New applications for the Case Method in disciplines other than management and business are being explored and research is being conducted on this basis. The Case Method is increasingly applied in higher education and educational administration, the instruction (and operation) of the social sciences, the arts, engineering, agriculture, strategic policy planning, and personnel development in different parts of the world. Several volumes of international case method research papers and presentations attest to WACRA®'s success in providing an important forum in "managing change in multi-cultural setting" and in promoting cross cultural dialogue and development in Higher Education and training.

Objectives

The objectives of WACRA® are to explain, research and advance the use of the case method in teaching, planning and training at all levels; to promote and encourage research using the case method, with special emphasis placed on studying the teaching effectiveness in varied teaching-learning systems; to coordinate development of interactive pedagogical methods involving the case method, simulations and games; to augment the available body of research and teaching materials; to foster interdisciplinary applications and to encourage cooperation with the public sector, the business community and other case method oriented professional specialties on a worldwide basis.

Functions

WACRA®'s main function at the present time is to coordinate research, to facilitate the organization of forums, public discussions, workshops, training sessions, lectures and conferences and develop a worldwide network. WACRA® organizes annual conferences at various locations around the world to provide opportunities and encourage the exchange of ideas, the presentation of planned, on-going and completed research, and the sharing of applications, simulations and games. Papers and manuscripts accepted (double blind peer review - acceptance rate for publication on average is between thirty and forty percent) and presented at the annual conferences are published. The WACRA® NEWSLETTER informs members about ongoing research projects, employment (exchange) opportunities, new publications and releases, curriculum development and other developments in interactive pedagogy. WACRA® supports and cooperates with national Case Method Organizations, with Case Clearing Houses worldwide and shares information with professional associations, agencies and corporations.

Advantages of Membership

Membership in **WACRA®** is open to all individuals and organizations wishing to advance the objectives of the association. As a member you receive the WACRA® NEWSLETTER; substantial discounts on WACRA® publications; preferential rates at all meetings organized by WACRA®; you can receive training and assistance in case writing and teaching; once you are a member, payment of full registration fee for any meeting includes membership in WACRA® for the following calendar year; you receive notices for all meetings and calls for papers; you have the opportunity for networking, consulting and to associate with other professionals working with cases, simulations and games on a truly international scale.

Membership

Membership in WACRA® is open to all individuals and organizations in all countries who wish to advance the objectives of the association and to advance professional standards in the field. The various classes of membership and annual dues which provide for the continuing support of WACRA®, are as follows:

Regular Member US $65: Any individual (teacher, researcher, government official or representative, business executive, attorney, consultant) who wishes to assist actively in attaining the goals of WACRA®.

Organization Member US $350: A special class of membership through which other existing associations or organizations can lend their support in meeting the goals of WACRA®. Associations and organizations eligible for this class of membership include foundations, educational, civic, community, governmental units, professional, business, and industrial groups.

Sustaining Member US $500: A special class of membership available to any individual or organization wishing to offer more substantial financial support to WACRA®.

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You are cordially invited to join WACRA®, to participate in all activities and to share your expertise and experiences with colleagues from around the world. Your comments and suggestions for future conference topics and sites and your active involvement in WACRA® are welcome and appreciated.

WACRA® en quelques mots

Fondée en 1984, WACRA® est à l'origine une organisation où des professeurs, des chercheurs, des preneurs de décision, des professionnels et des gens d'affaires se rencontraient. Par la suite, elle est devenue une association internationale et interdisciplinaire qui accueille des professionnels et des universitaires de 50 pays.

WACRA® organise des symposiums, des ateliers, des sessions de formation, des conférences et chaque année un congrès international où les membres peuvent échanger leurs idées, présenter leurs travaux de recherche et leurs cas. Toute personne ou toute organisation qui souhaite faire progresser les objectifs de l'association peut devenir membre.

Au cours des dernières années, le congrès annuel s'est tenu à Lausanne (Suisse), Londres (Angleterre), Boston (Etats Unis), Enschede (Pays Bas), Berlin (Allemagne), Prague (République Tchèque), Limerick (Irlande), Bratislava (Slovaquie) et Vienne (Autriche), Montréal (Canada), Leysin (Suisse) et Varsovie (Pologne), Edimbourg (Ecosse) et Marseille, France. En 1999, le congrès se tiendra due 4 au 7 juillet à l' Université de Extremadura in Cáceres, Espagne,. Le thème choisi est: La Pédagogie Créative et Interactive." En 2000, c'est L'Université de l' Europe Centrale (Central European University) en Budapest, Hongerie qui accueillera les membres au début juillet.

Plusieurs associations affilliées sont nées au fil des ans. BACRA - Baltic Association for Case Method Research & Application - à l'Université technologique Kaunas à Panevezys en Lituanie. CZACRA - Czech Association for Case Method Research & Application - à l'Université d'Agriculture Mendel à Brno en République Tchèque. Enfin, NACRA - North American Case Research Association - à l'Université de Tampa à Tampa en Floride, Etats Unis.

Ces différentes associations ont un même objectif qui est la promotion de la méhode des cas comme outil pédagogique privilégié utilisé dans l'enseignement, la formation et la planification. Ces associations cherchent également à encourager la méthode es cas comme outil de recherche et à coordonner les activitées d'écriture de cas. Elles facilitent également la coopération entre le secteur public, la communauté des gens d'affaires et les professionnels qui utilisent la méthode des cas. Plus récemment, les jeux, simulations et autres méthodes interactives d'apprentissage et d'enseignment sont venus s'ajouter à la méthode des cas.

Les membres reçoivent le Bulletin de l'association (WACRA® NEWSletter), des rabais intéressants sur toutes les publications faites par WACRA®, des taux préférentielles sur toutes rencontres commanditées par WACRA®, ainsi qu'une mise à jour de tous les événements et demandes d'articles. Les membres peuvent faire des stages et recevoir de l'aide aussi bien pour rédiger un cas que pour enseigner en utilisant cette méthode. Ils peuvent bénéficier du réseau WACRA®, consulter et s'associer avec d'autres membres qui utilisent la méthode des cas sur une échelle internationale.

¿WACRA®?

Creada en 1984, WACRA® se componía al principio de un grupo de profesores, investigadores, tomadores de decisión, profesionales y ejecutivos. Al pasar los años el grupo se transformó en una asociación internacional e interdisciplinaria de profesionales y académicos que pertenecen a 50 países.

WACRA® organiza foros, simposios, talleres, sesiones de formación y conferencias. Además cada año la asociación ofrece su congreso international. Durante cuatro días los congresistas tienen la posibilidad de intercambiar ideas, presentar sus trabajos de investigación y comunicar el resultado de sus trabajos de escritura. Cada persona u organización que guiere favorecer los objetivos de la asociación puede ser miembro.

Los congresos anteriores se hicieron en Lausanne (Suiza), Londres (Reino Unido), Enschede (Países Bajos), Boston (Estados Unidos), Berlín (Alemania), Praga (República Checa), Limerick (Irlanda), Bratislava (Eslovaquia) y Viena (Austria), Montreal (Canadá), Leysin (Suiza), Varsovia (Polonia), Edimburgo (Escocia) y Marsella (Francia). El congreso de 1999 se hará del 4 al 7 de julio de 1999 en la Universidad de Extremadura, Cáceres, España. En 2000, la Universidad de Europa Central (Central European University) en Budapest en Hungria recibirá a los congresistas del 3 al 7 julio de 1999.

Las asociaciones afiliades son BACRA - Baltic Association for Case Method Research & Application - que está en la Universidad tecnológica Kaunas en Panevezys (Lituania), CZACRA - Czech Association for Case Method Research & Application - está en la Universidad de Agricultura Mendel en Brno (República Checa), NACRA - North American Case Research Association - está en la Universidad de Tampa en Tampa (Florida, Estados Unidos).

Los objetivos de estas asociaciones consisten den promover el uso del método de los casos aplicado a la enseñanza, a las sesiones de formación y de planificación. Las asociaciones se dedican también a valorizar el uso de ese método, a coordinar las actividades de escritura de casos y a favorecer la cooperación entre el sector público, la gente de negocios y los profesionales que utilizan métodos interactivos. El acento inicial ponía el enfoque sobre el método de los casos; desde hace unos años se incluyeron juegos, simulaciones y métodos de formación y de enseñanza interactivos.

Los miembros de la asociación reciben un boletín (WACRA® NEWSletter), descuentos interesantes sobre las publicaciones hechas por WACRA®, tarifas preferenciales para las reuniones organizadas por WACRA®. Los miembros reciben noticias sobre las actividades, solicitudes de artículos y pueden participar a sesiones de formación y recibir asistencia en escritura de casos y enseñanza por este método. Además tienen la oportunidad de formar parte de una red internacional que les permite consultar y asociarse con profesionales que trabajan con casos.

WACRA®

NEWS

Vol. X No. 1

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CALL FOR PAPERS
CASE METHOD

RESEARCH AND APPLICATION (INCLUDING CASE WRITING)

17th INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE at the CENTRAL EUROPEAN UNIVERSITY

Budapest, Hungary

July 2 - 5, 2000

"COMPLEX DEMANDS ON TEACHING REQUIRE INNOVATION"

Cases, Multimedia, Simulations, Distance Education and Other Interactive Methods

The case method can play an important role in solving problems and in teaching problem-solving, as well as in initiating and managing change. Thus this conference provides opportunities for participants to learn more about teaching using the case method and related instructional approaches in a variety of educational settings. Participants will have ample opportunity to meet colleagues from around the world with whom they can forge research partnerships. WACRA® conferences are interdisciplinary multinational forums for scholars in the disciplines and professional fields (such as business, communication, education, engineering, history, law, medicine, psychology, public policy, social work) and practitioners in business and industry, education and government.

Papers are solicited that analyze theory and practice using cases, simulations, videos and related instructional methods for problem solving, managing change and innovation. Priority will be given to papers that are interdisciplinary, international, and/or comparative. Papers reporting the application of cases in university and professional training programs in diverse settings and papers on the evaluation of the case method and its related forms for teaching and learning are encouraged. Contributions investigating challenges (and suggesting solutions) faced by business are also solicited. Proposals for case writing & development and actual cases placed in diverse settings are invited, e.g. joint-cross-cultural cases. While a main focus of the WACRA conferences is on using cases for teaching and problem-solving, scholarly papers that report research using the case method are welcome. WACRA is particularly interested in scholarly papers that enhance the understanding and collaboration between and among disciplines and international partners. The most innovative presentation and the outstanding paper are recognized.

Submissions should include three copies of the (1) a cover page including: title, name, affiliation, address, tel. & fax numbers and e-mail address of the author(s), (2) a proposal summary (not exceeding 4 pages) or the completed paper (not exceeding 15 pages). Download the manuscript guidelines from our web site below . The summary should state clearly the objectives, the framework, and the nature of the proposal and be responsive to the criteria used for review. The name of the author(s) should not appear on the summary page to facilitate the blind peer review.

Include two stamped, self-addressed envelopes (for submissions from outside the U.S.A. include a Post Office International Answer Coupon) which will be used to acknowledge receipt of the proposal/paper and the results of the review. **All proposals and papers are due on or before January 15, 2000.** ***Completed papers received prior to*** **January 15, 2000** will be considered for publication. For further details visit our web site or contact us directly

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DEMANDE D'ARTICLES
MÉTHODE DES CAS
RECHERCHE, APPLICATION ET ÉCRITURE

DIX-SEPTIÈME CONGRÈS INTERNATIONAL à CENTRAL EUROPEAN UNIVERSITY

BUDAPEST, HONGRIE
du 2 au 5 juillet 2000

"LA PÉDAGOGIE: PLUS DE COMPLEXITÉ - PLUS D'INNOVATION?"
avec cas, multimédia, simulations et autres méthodes interactives

La méthode des cas peut jouer un rôle important lorsqu'il faut résoudre des problèmes et enseigner à résoudre des problèmes tout comme lorsqu'il faut entreprendre et gérer le changement. Par conséquent ce congrès offre aux participants la possibilité d'apprendre plus sur l'enseignement par la méthode des cas et les méthodes d'enseignement apparentées dans des situations éducatives variées. Les participants pourront rencontrer des confrères du monde entier et développer des partenariats de recherche et d'enseignement. Les congrès de WACRA sont des forums interdisciplinaires et multinationaux pour des universitaires dans des disciplines traditionnelles et des domaines professionnels comme la gestion, la communication, l'éducation, l'ingénierie, l'histoire, le droit, la médecine, la psychologie, l'administration publique, le travail social et pour des praticiens dans le domaine des affaires et de l'industrie, de l'éducation et du gouvernement.

Nous sollicitons des articles qui analysent la théorie et la pratique en se servant de cas, de simulations, de vidéos et de méthodes d'enseignement apparentées pour résoudre des problèmes et gérer le changement et l'innovation. Nous donnerons la préférence aux articles interdisciplinaires, internationaux et/ou comparatifs. Nous encourageons les articles qui décrivent l'utilisation de cas à l'université et dans des programmes de formation professionnelle, lors de situations variées, ainsi que les articles qui traitent de l'évaluation de la méthode des cas et de ses différentes formes utilisées dans un contexte d'enseignement et d'apprentissage. Nous aimerions recevoir des contributions qui documentent les défis (et les solutions proposées) que rencontrent les gens d'affaires. Nous acceptons des textes sur l'écriture de cas et son développement ainsi que des cas réels décrivant des situations variées comme, par exemple, des cas interculturels. Même si lors des congrès nous mettons l'accent sur la méthode des cas comme une méthode d'enseignement et une méthode pour résoudre les problèmes, nous acceptons également des articles académiques qui décrivent la méthode des cas comme une méthode de recherche. WACRA s'intéresse particulièrement aux articles académiques qui améliorent notre compréhension de la collaboration qui existe entre et parmi les partenaires internationaux. Nous soulignerons la présentation la plus innovatrice ainsi que le meilleur article.

Vous devez soumettre vos projets en trois exemplaires de (1) la page couverture qui renferme les renseignements suivants sur le ou les auteurs: titre, nom, institution, adresse, numéros de téléphone et fax, adresse électronique, (2) un résumé du projet (qui ne doit pas dépasser 4 pages) ou de l'article terminé (qui ne doit pas dépasser 15 pages). Pour d'autres informations sur la rédaction de votre manuscrit, veuillez vous reporter à notre site internet dont l'adresse vous est donnée un peu plus bas. Le résumé doit indiquer clairement les objectifs, la structure et la nature du projet et répondre aux critères cités plus haut. Le nom du ou des auteurs ne doit pas apparaître sur la page résumé pour garantir le processus d'évaluation anonyme.

Joignez deux enveloppes pré-affranchies, portant vos nom et adresse (pour les projets venant de l'étranger, veuillez joindre deux coupons postaux internationaux). Nous utilisons ces enveloppes pour accuser réception du projet et pour vous informer des résultats de l'évaluation. **Tous les projets et tous les articles doivent nous parvenir au plus tard le 15 janvier 2000**. ***Les articles terminés et reçus avant le 15 janvier 2000*** pourront faire l'objet d'une publication. Pour plus d'informations, veuillez consulter notre site internet ou contactez nous directement

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Merci d'afficher ou de partager cette invitation avec vos confrères!

SOLICITUD DE ARTÍCULOS
MÉTODO DE LOS CASOS

INVESTIGACIÓN, APLICACIÓN Y REDACCIÓN
DECIMOSEPTIMO CONGRESO INTERNACIONALUNIVERSIDAD DE EUROPA CENTRAL

BUDAPEST, HUNGRIA

del 2 al 5 de Julio de 2000

"ENSEÑANZA: COMPLEJOS REQUERIMIENTOS Y INNOVACIÓN"

con casos, multimedia, enseñanza de distancia, simulaciones y otros métodos interactivos

El método de los casos puede desempeñar un papel importante cuando se trata de resolver problemas y enseñar a resolverlos; es importante también cuando se trata de emprender y administrar cambios. Por lo tanto, este congreso ofrece a los participantes la posibilidad de aprender aún más sobre la pedagogía utilizando este método y métodos de enseñanza relacionados con él, en diferentes situaciones educativas. Los participantes tendrán la oportunidad de conocer a colegas de otros rincones del mundo, con quienes podrán desarrollar grupos de investigación y de enseñanza. Los congresos de la WACRA son foros interdisciplinarios y multinacionales para todos los catedráticos de las disciplinas y de los sectores profesionales que incluyen la administración de los negocios, la comunicación, la educación, la ingeniería, la historia, el derecho, la medicina, la sicología, la administración pública, el trabajo social y los profesionales dedicados a los negocios y a la industria, a la educación y al gobierno.

Se solicitan artículos que analicen tanto la teoría como la práctica, mediante el uso de casos, simulaciones, videos y otros métodos de instrucción relacionados con la solución de problemas, la administración del cambio y la innovación. Se dará prioridad a los artículos interdisciplinarios, internacionales y/o comparativos. Se favorecen artículos que discutan y situen la aplicación de casos en la universidad y en los programas de formación profesional en varios contextos y artículos que evaluen el método de los casos. Se aceptan artículos que traten de los desafíos (con posibilidad de soluciones) que encuentran los hombres de negocios y artículos que involucren la redacción y el desarrollo de casos verdaderos en situaciones diferentes (por ejemplo casos interculturales). Aun si el enfoque de los congresos de la WACRA es el método de los casos y el uso de este método como un instrumento de enseñanza y de ayuda a la solución de problemas, consideramos artículos académicos que situen el uso de este método en el campo de la investigación. La WACRA está particularmente interesada en artículos académicos que aumenten nuestro conocimiento de la colaboración que existe entre los miembros de los organismos internacionales. Se tiene previsto señalar la presentación más innovadora y el artículo más relevante.

Los proyectos presentados deben incluir tres copias de (1) la portada con las informaciones siguientes sobre el o los autores: título, nombre, institución, dirección, números de teléfono y fax, dirección electrónica, (2) un resumen del proyecto (que no exceda 4 páginas) o el artículo terminado (que no exceda 15 páginas). Véase las informaciones tocante a la redacción del manuscrito en nuestra página Web. El resumen debe indicar con claridad los objetivos, la estructura, la naturaleza del proyecto y corresponder a los criterios mencionados más arriba. El nombre del autor o autores no debe figurar en el resumen para proteger el sistema de evaluación anónima de los diferentes proyectos.

Mande dos sobres franqueables con su respectivo nombre y dirección (para los proyectos que vienen del extranjero, mande dos cupones de correo internacional). Se utilizan los dos sobres para acusar recibo del proyecto y para informarle del resultado de la evaluación. **Se deben recibir todos los proyectos y artículos antes del 15 de enero de 2000**. Una posibilidad de publicación se ofrece para ***los artículos terminados que se reciben antes del* 15 de enero de 2000**. ¿Necesita más informaciones? Visite nuestra página Web o llame directamente

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International Conference on
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Directions for Preparation of Your Manuscript, Abstract or Proposal

Prepare your manuscript according to the following guidelines and send a CAMERA READY hard copy and on diskette a "WordPerfect", "Microsoft Word" or ASCII text file prepared on IBM PC or compatible (DOS environment). If you cannot send the diskette or cannot format the paper, include your check in the amount of $60 (payable to WACRA, drawn on an US bank or international money order) and we arrange for typing.

1. Print your manuscript on 8-1/2 x 11" paper, SINGLE SPACED.
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3. Print on ONE side of the paper.
4. Margins should be ONE INCH on **ALL FOUR SIDES OF THE PAPER.**
5. Use 10 pt standard type (NOT some fancy script type).
6. Print on a LASER JET or LETTER QUALITY printer, NOT on a dot matrix printer.
7. Make sure that the printed copy you send is of dark enough quality so that it is easily read.
8. List all ENDNOTES at the end of the paper (but before references).
9. List all REFERENCES (alphabetized) at the end of the paper. See back of this page for sample. When referencing an item, use the following style: [Chow, 1983]. **Note the square brackets.**
10. All paragraphs should be indented as shown on the back. Set your WordPerfect or Microsoft Word Tabs at 0.25" intervals relative to the left margin. **DO NOT SKIP LINES** BETWEEN PARAGRAPHS.
11. The first page should contain: Beginning on the **seventh** line from the top (1) the title, centered, ALL CAPITALIZED; drop two lines (2) the author's name (first name and last name, without titles), centered; on the next line (3) the author's affiliation (name of institution centered); on the following line (4) the city, state and country, ALL CAPITALIZED; drop 2 lines (5) the word "Abstract;" drop one line, begin abstract of the paper (100 words MAXIMUM, INDENTED .5 inches FROM THE LEFT AND RIGHT MARGINS); (6) after Abstract, drop one line and list keywords that will be used in your paper and (7) begin the paper after having dropped one line at the end of the keywords. **Use "tabs" to indent** at the beginning of each paragraph.
12. Tables and Figures should be numbered (1, 2, etc.), SINGLE SPACED, and PLACED IN THE TEXT. A one inch margin on all 4 sides must remain free. **All Tables and Figures (Drawings) must be camera ready.**
13. There can be up to THREE levels of HEADINGS. The FIRST level is CENTERED, ALL CAPITALIZED and bold; the SECOND level is FLUSH WITH THE LEFT MARGIN, ALL CAPITALIZED and bold; and the THIRD level is FLUSH WITH THE LEFT MARGIN (lower case characters) underlined.
14. To enable us to consider your contribution for publication, we need to receive your completed manuscript on or before the published deadline. Only those manuscripts which are accepted for presentation at the conference will be considered for publication.

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SAMPLE PAGE - TITLE OF THE PAPER

Hans E. Klein
WACRA®
NEEDHAM, MASSACHUSETTS, U.S.A.

Abstract

This is a sample page containing a sample abstract, short sample body, and references. Front and back of this instruction sheet are printed in Geneva Regular 10 pt (sans serif) and **Geneva Bold 10 pt (IBM PC)** fonts, except for the paper title on this page: **Times New Roman Bold 14 pt**. Notice how this abstract is indented .5 INCHES from both the left and right margins (which are both 1"). All headings (except third-level headings as below) including headings for "**TABLE 1, FIGURE 1, APPENDIX A**" etc. should be typed in upper case characters and bolded.

KEYWORDS: Provide descriptors of the main topics, e.g. Computer Literacy, Infrastructures, Trainers, International cooperation.

INTRODUCTION - FIRST-LEVEL HEADING

Above is an example of a first-level heading. Below is an example of a second-level heading. At the end of a sentence, after the period, insert **two** blank spaces. Use the "full" justification feature (left and right side aligned).

SECOND-LEVEL HEADING

Above is an example of a second-level section heading. The heading is flush left, in upper case characters and bold. Below is an example of a third-level heading. The third-level heading is (underlined) in lower case characters, except for the first word, nouns, etc.

Third-Level Heading

The third-level heading is flush to the left, in lower case characters and underlined. Included in this sentence is an example of a reference [Chow, 1983] appearing in **square brackets**. Avoid footnotes to the extent possible and use endnotes[1] instead.

ENDNOTES

1. This is an example of an endnote. All endnotes should be generated using the appropriate WordPerfect or Microsoft Word feature. Use Geneva 10 points. The endnotes should be placed at the end of the paper, before references. Immediately following the 'automatic note number' insert an "indent."

REFERENCES

Chow, C., "The Effects of Job Standard Tightness and Compensation Scheme on Performance: An Exploration of Linkages," Accounting Review (October 1983), pp. 667-685.

Previts, G. and B. Merino, A History of Accounting in America (John Wiley, 1979).

CALL FOR PAPERS

"Creative Teaching"

LUCERNE, SWITZERLAND

January 5 - 7, 2000

The 3rd "Creative Teaching" conference provides opportunities for participants to learn from and to share with experts and colleagues innovative creative teaching approaches and methods. The emphases are on "Teaching and Learning" through interactive workshops and by sharing of research and teaching/training applications. The methods discussed and presented include the case method and related instructional approaches in a variety of educational settings including distance learning. Participants will have ample opportunity to meet colleagues from around the world with whom they can forge research/teaching partnerships. ACT and WACRA® conferences are interdisciplinary, multinational forums for scholars in the disciplines and professional fields such as business, education, engineering, law, medicine, public policy, social work and practitioners in business and industry, education and government.

Papers are solicited that report on Creative Teaching practices and proposals. Priority will be given to papers that are innovative, interdisciplinary, and/or international. Papers reporting the application of creative teaching and learning in university and professional training programs in diverse settings and papers on the evaluation of such methods and its related forms for teaching and learning are encouraged.

Proposals and papers will be evaluated through a blind peer review process on the basis of (a) originality; (b) the appropriateness of the topic for an interdisciplinary audience; (c) the technical adequacy of the inquiry; and (d) the contribution to the understanding of teaching/learning issues.

Submissions should include three copies of the (1) a cover page including: title, name, affiliation, address, tel. & fax numbers and e-mail address of the author(s), (2) a proposal summary (not exceeding 4 pages) or the completed paper (not exceeding 15 pages). Download the manuscript guidelines from our web site below . The summary should state clearly the objectives, the framework, and the nature of the proposal and be responsive to the criteria used for review. The name of the author(s) should not appear on the summary page to facilitate the blind peer review.

Include two stamped, self-addressed envelopes (for submissions from outside the U.S.A. include a Post Office International Answer Coupon) which will be used to acknowledge receipt of the proposal/paper and the results of the review. **All proposals and papers are due on or before September 24, 1999.** ***Completed papers received prior to September, 1999*** will be considered for publication. **Conference registrations are due on or before October 25, 1999.** For further details, including discounts on airfares, visit our web site or contact us directly

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18th INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE at LUND UNIVERSITY

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June 17 - 20, 2001

"CASE METHOD TEACHING AND DISTANCE LEARNING"

With Cases, Multimedia, Simulations, and Other Interactive Methods

The case method can play an important role in solving problems and in teaching problem-solving, as well as in initiating and managing change. Thus this conference provides opportunities for participants to learn more about teaching using the case method and related instructional approaches in a variety of educational settings. Participants will have ample opportunity to meet colleagues from around the world with whom they can forge research partnerships. WACRA® conferences are interdisciplinary multinational forums for scholars in the disciplines and professional fields (such as business, communication, education, engineering, history, law, medicine, psychology, public policy, social work) and practitioners in business and industry, education and government.

Papers are solicited that analyze theory and practice using cases, simulations, videos and related instructional methods for problem solving, managing change and innovation. Priority will be given to papers that are interdisciplinary, international, and/or comparative. Papers reporting the application of cases in university and professional training programs in diverse settings and papers on the evaluation of the case method and its related forms for teaching and learning are encouraged. Contributions investigating challenges (and suggesting solutions) faced by business are also solicited. Proposals for case writing & development and actual cases placed in diverse settings are invited, e.g. joint-cross-cultural cases. While a main focus of the WACRA conferences is on using cases for teaching and problem-solving, scholarly papers that report research using the case method are welcome. WACRA is particularly interested in scholarly papers that enhance the understanding and collaboration between and among disciplines and international partners. The most innovative presentation and the outstanding paper are recognized.

Submissions should include three copies of the (1) a cover page including: title, name, affiliation, address, tel. & fax numbers and e-mail address of the author(s), (2) a proposal summary (not exceeding 4 pages) or the completed paper (not exceeding 15 pages). Download the manuscript guidelines from our web site below . The summary should state clearly the objectives, the framework, and the nature of the proposal and be responsive to the criteria used for review. The name of the author(s) should not appear on the summary page to facilitate the blind peer review.

Include two stamped, self-addressed envelopes (for submissions from outside the U.S.A. include a Post Office International Answer Coupon) which will be used to acknowledge receipt of the proposal/paper and the results of the review. **All proposals and papers are due on or before January 15, 2001.** ***Completed papers received prior to*** **January 15, 2001** will be considered for publication. For further details visit our web site or contact us directly

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